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"(تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات"

المكتبة البريطانية: أوراق خاصة وسجلات من مكتب الهند

IOR/L/MIL/17/15/44

١٩٢٣ (ميلادي)

الإنجليزية في اللاتينية

مجلد واحد (٤٢١ صفحة)

رخصة حكومية مفتوحة

المؤسسة المالكة

المرجع

التاريخ/ التواريخ

لغة الكتابة

الحجم والشكل

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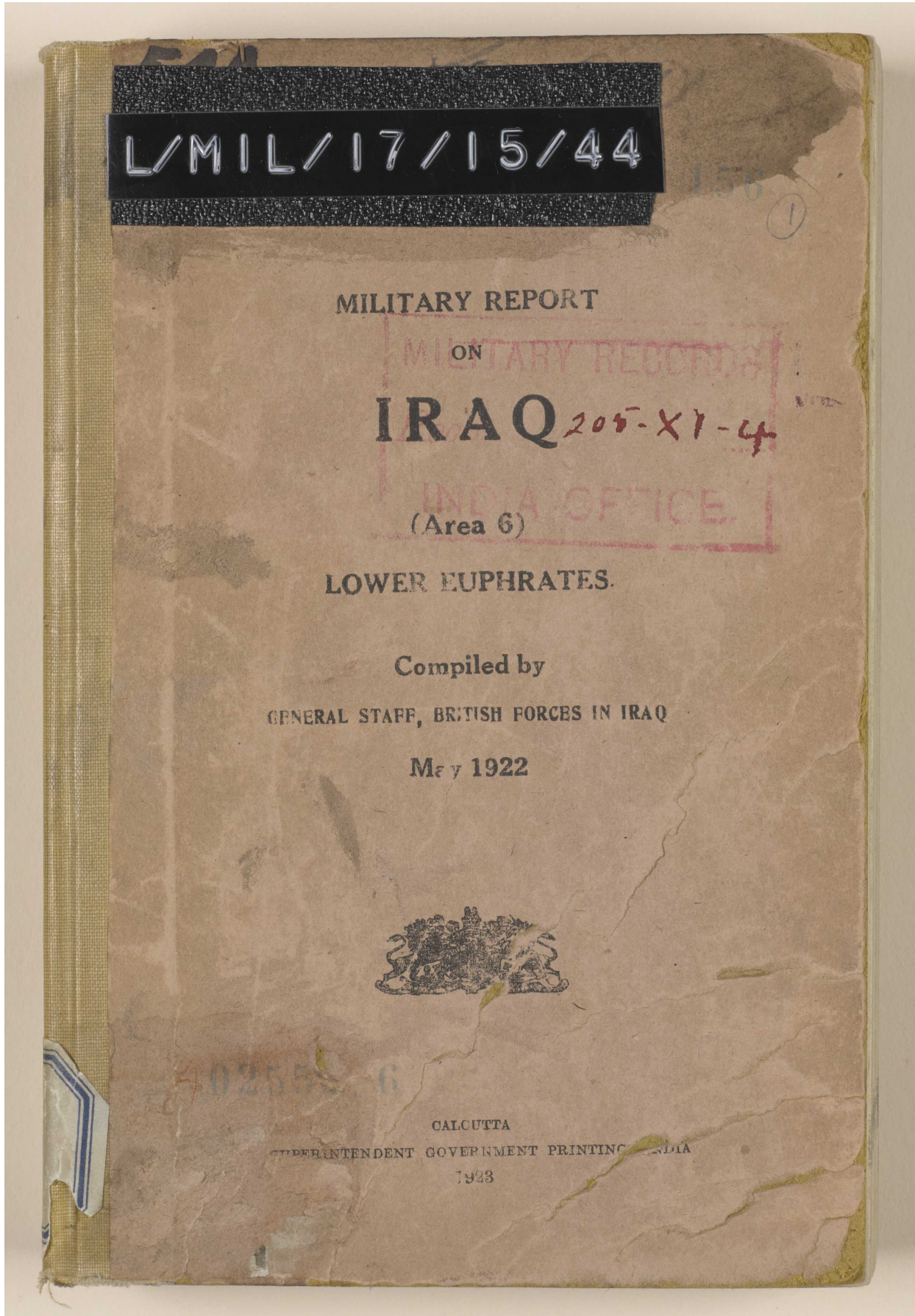


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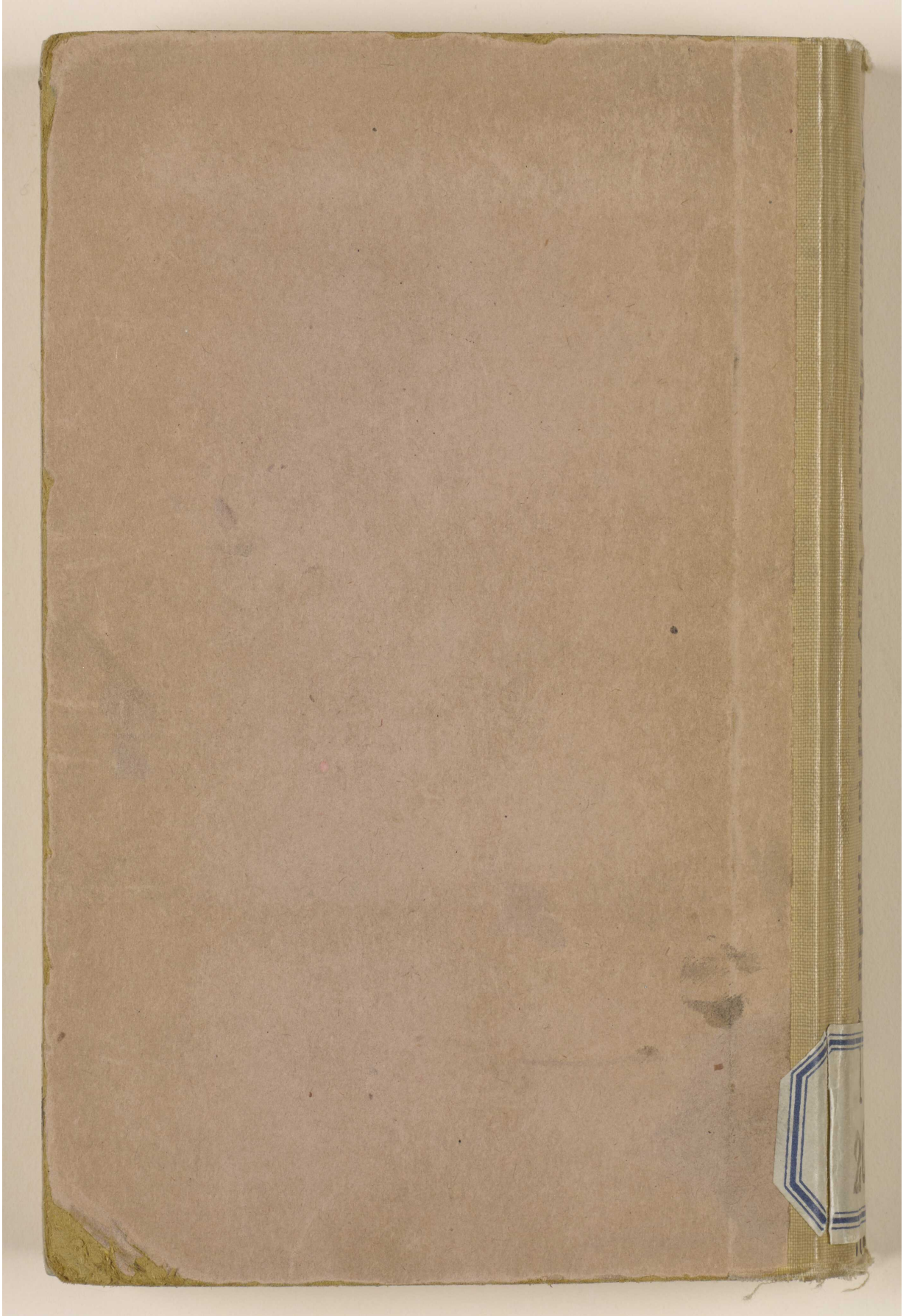
جُمعت مادة هذا المجلد كواحد من عشر تقارير لمساعدة العمليات العسكرية البريطانية في العراق، والتي نشرتها هيئة الأركان العامة للقوات البريطانية في العراق. وهو يغطي المنطقة ٦، أي منطقة أسفل الفرات، ويحتوي على فصول تتناول التاريخ، الجغرافيا، المناخ، الإثنوغرافيا، الموارد الطبيعية، بالإضافة إلى التركيبة القبلية للمنطقة. تركز الفصول الأخيرة على الشخصيات الهامة والبنية التحتية للاتصالات.

المعلومات الواردة في المجلد مفصلة للغاية لأن المنطقة التي تتناولها كانت مسرحًا لأعمال تمرد ضد بريطانيا في سنة ١٩٢٠. ولذلك فهي مفصلة بشكل خاص فيما يتعلق بالتركيبة السياسية والديموغرافية للمنطقة وسكانها.

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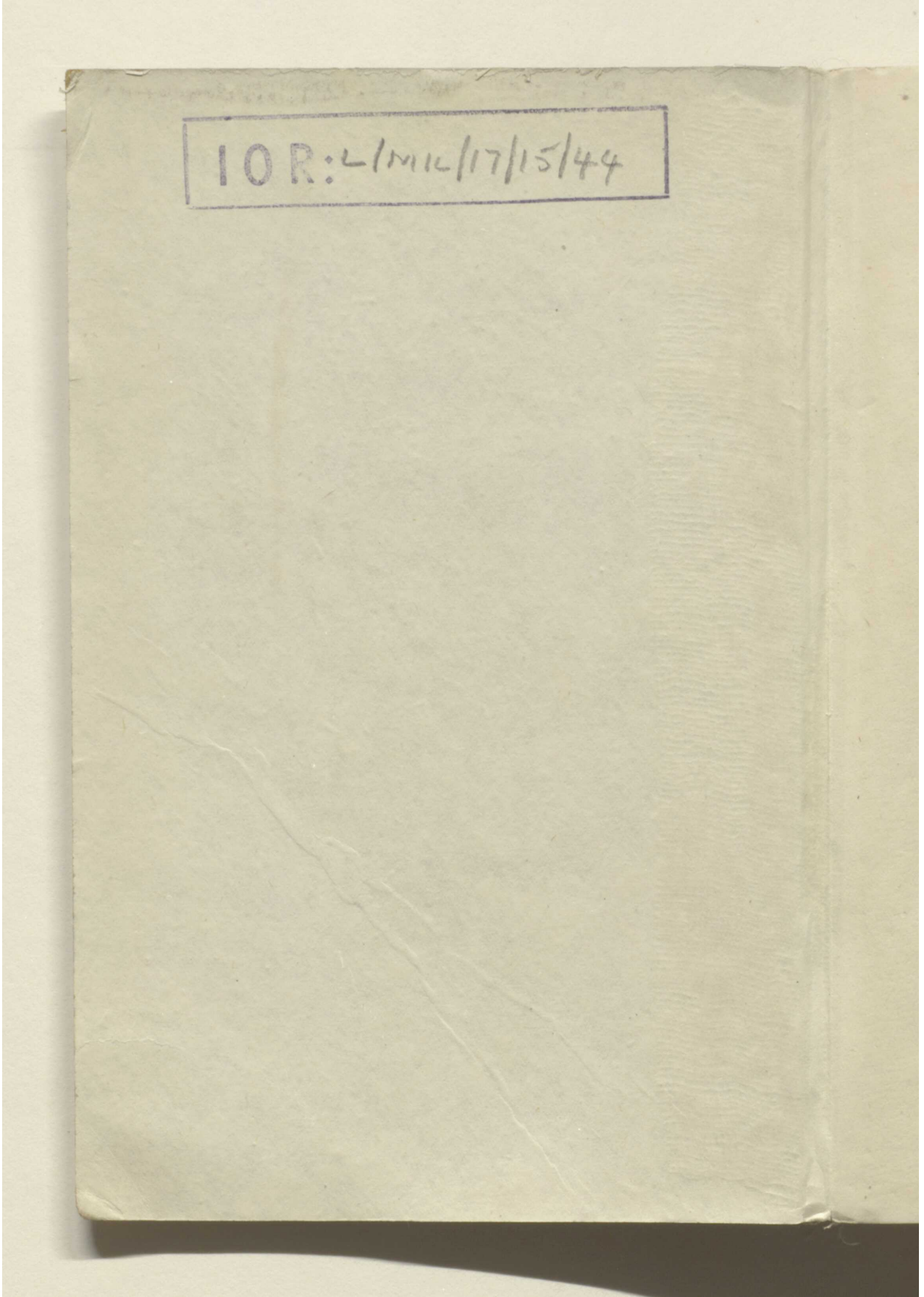
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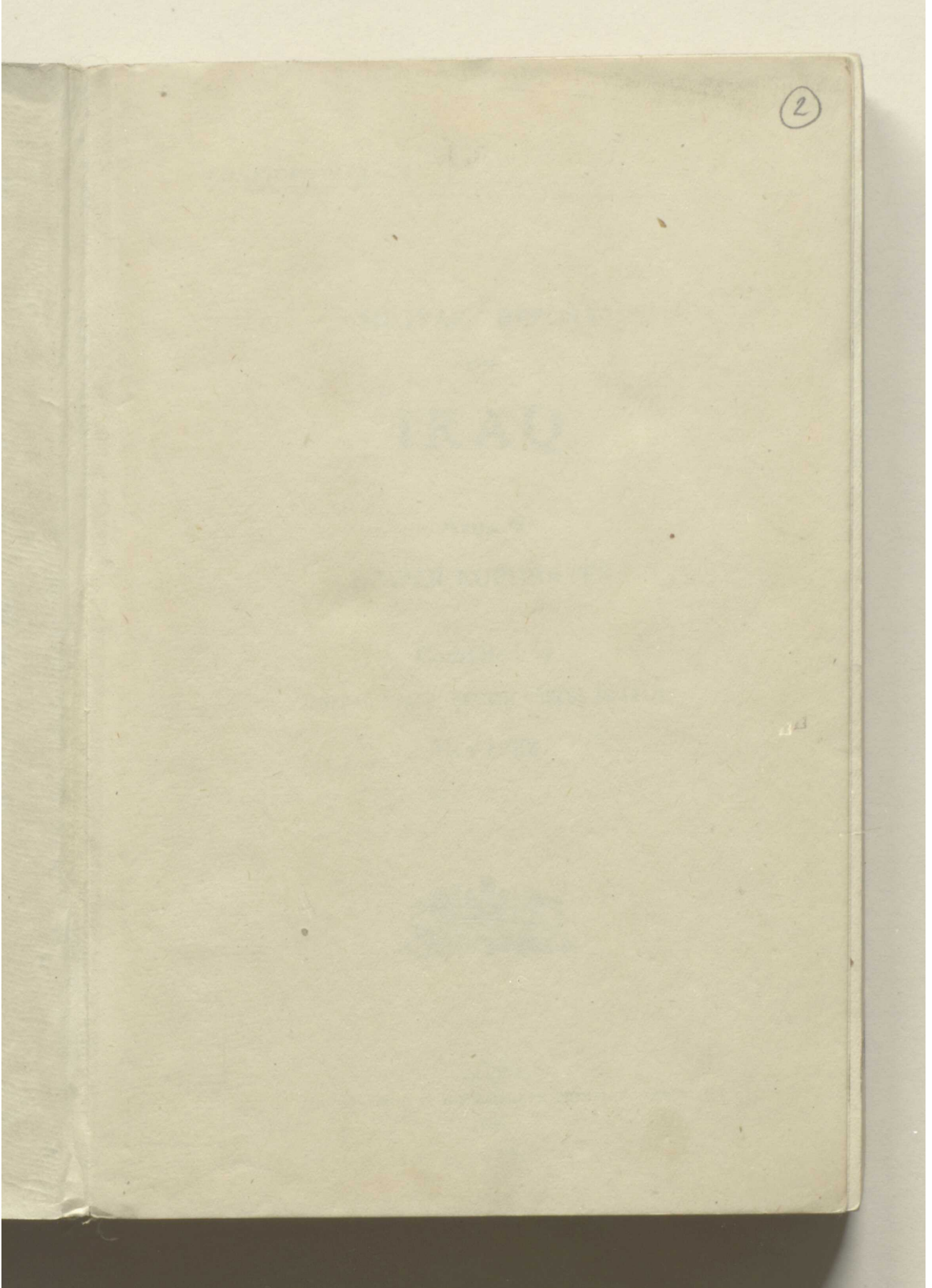
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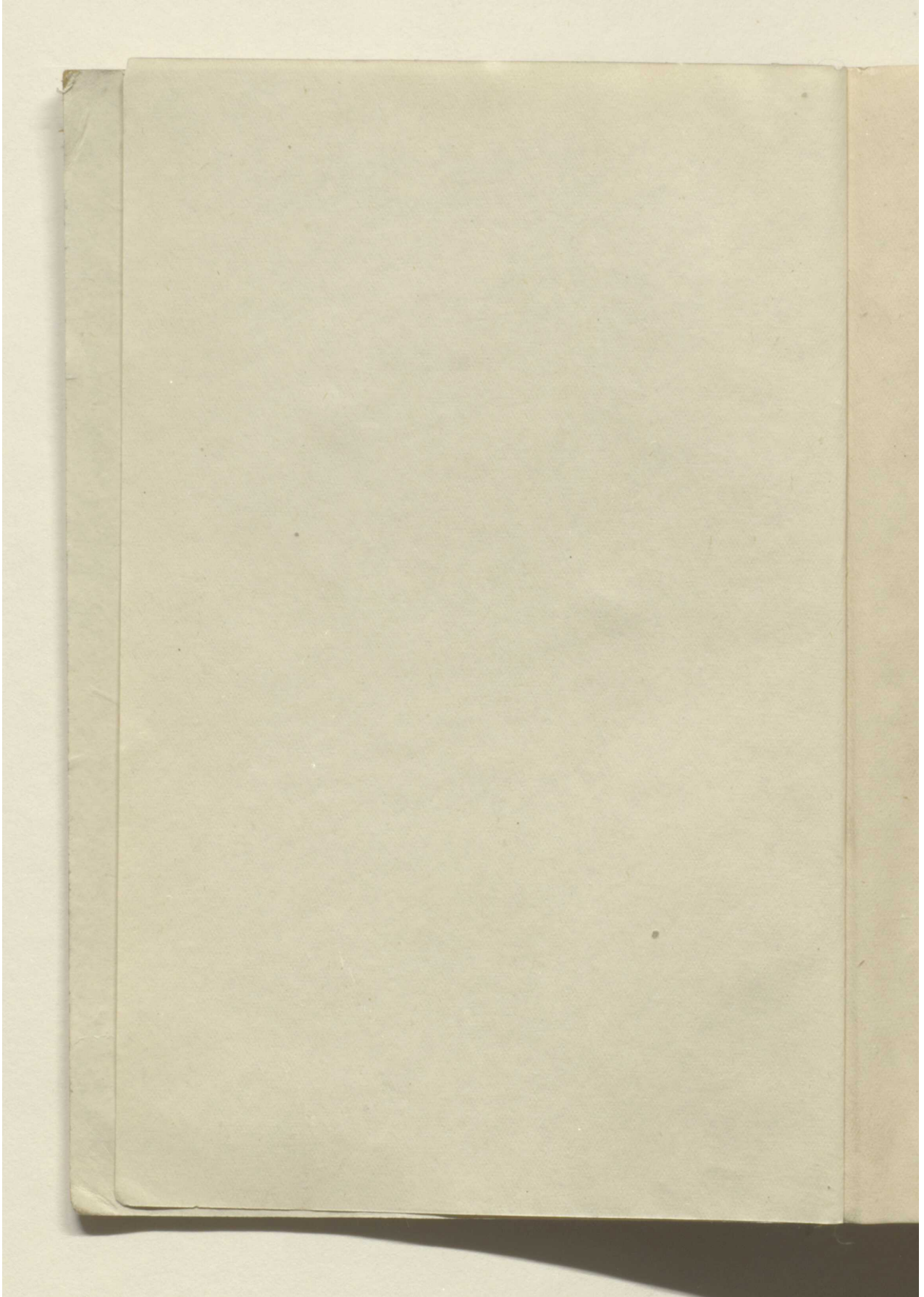
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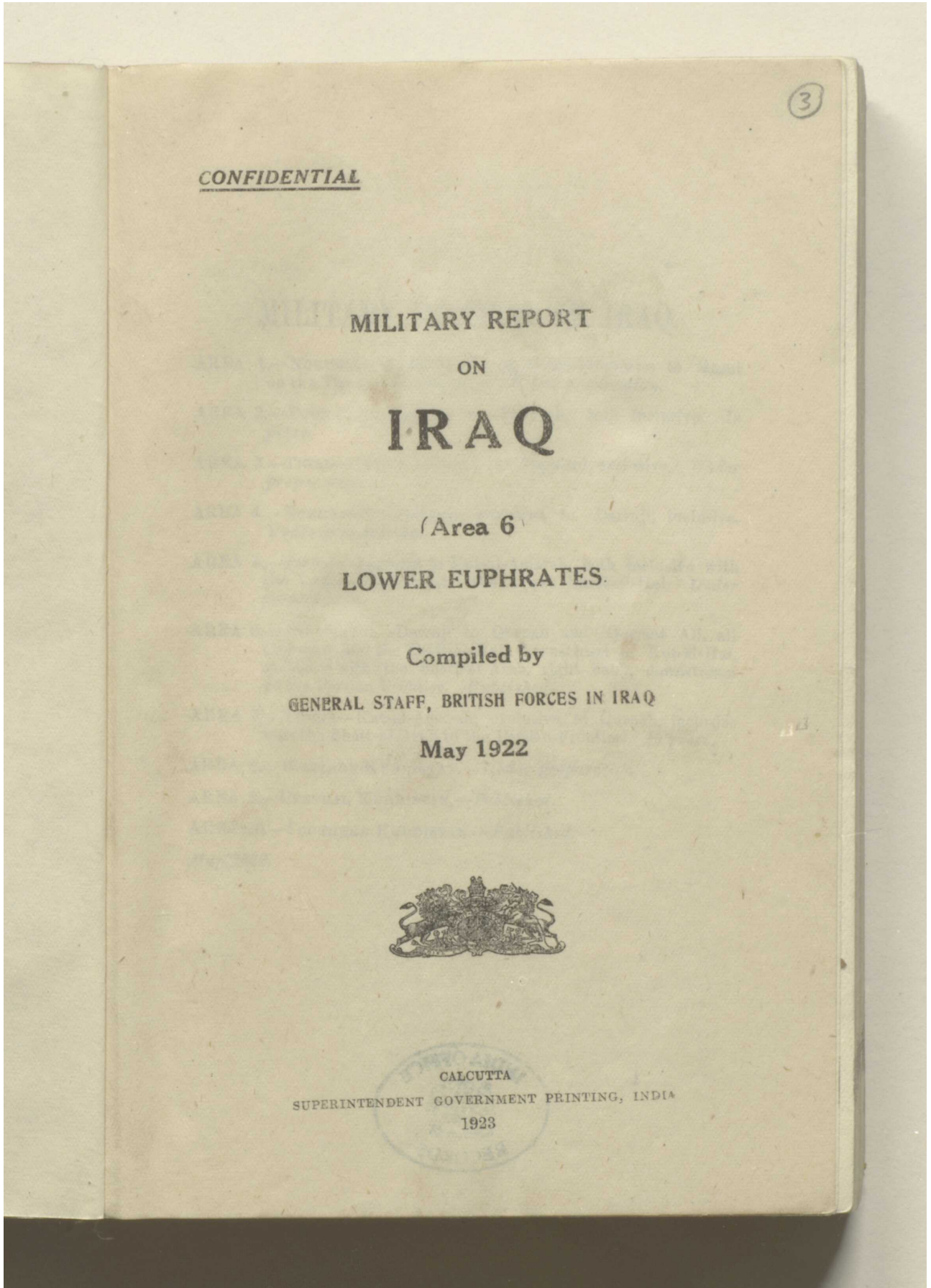
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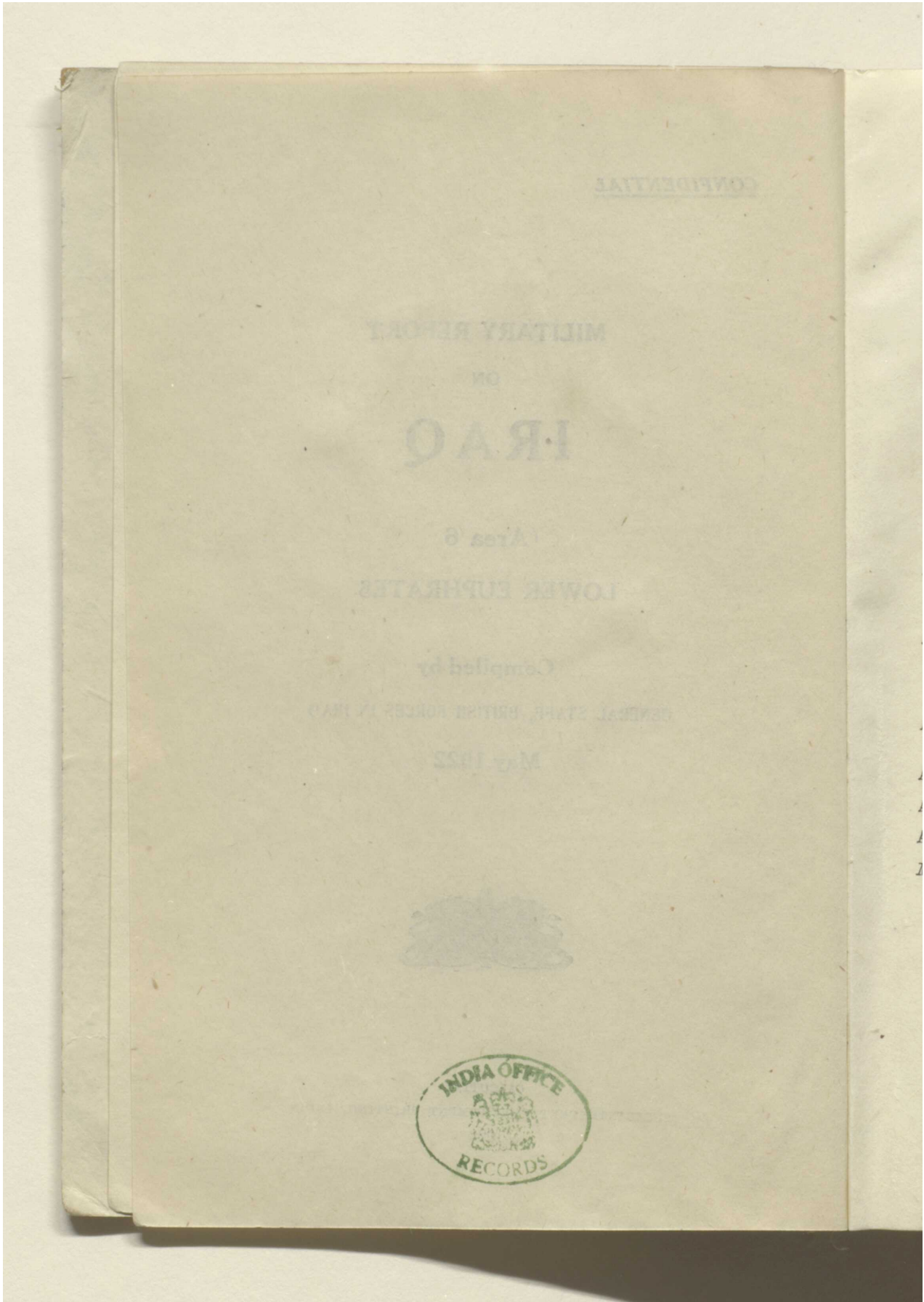
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"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣و] (٤٥٢/١٠)



"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣ظ] (١١/٤٥٢)



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MILITARY REPORTS ON IRAQ.

- AREA 1.—NORTHERN JAZIRAH—Rakka on the Euphrates to Mosul on the Tigris, both exclusive. *Under preparation.*
- AREA 2.—EUPHRATES—Rakka to Fallujah, both inclusive. *In press.*
- AREA 3.—TIGRIS—Mosul, inclusive, to Baghdad, exclusive. *Under preparation.*
- AREA 4.—EUPHRATES—Fallujah, exclusive, to Darraji, inclusive. *Under preparation.*
- AREA 5.—TIGRIS—Baghdad to Kut-al-Amarah, both inclusive with the Lower Diyalah and the Upper Shatt-al-Hai. *Under preparation.*
- AREA 6.—EUPHRATES—Darraji to Qurnah and Qurmat Ali, all exclusive and the Shatt-al-Hai, downstream of Kut-al-Hai, exclusive with the Shatt-al-Arab, right bank, downstream of the Persian Frontier. *Published.*
- AREA 7.—TIGRIS—Kut-al-Amarah, exclusive, to Qurnah, inclusive with the Shatt-al-Arab to the Persian Frontier. *In press.*
- AREA 8.—WESTERN KURDISTAN.—*Under preparation.*
- AREA 9.—CENTRAL KURDISTAN.—*Published.*
- AREA 10.—SOUTHERN KURDISTAN.—*Published.*
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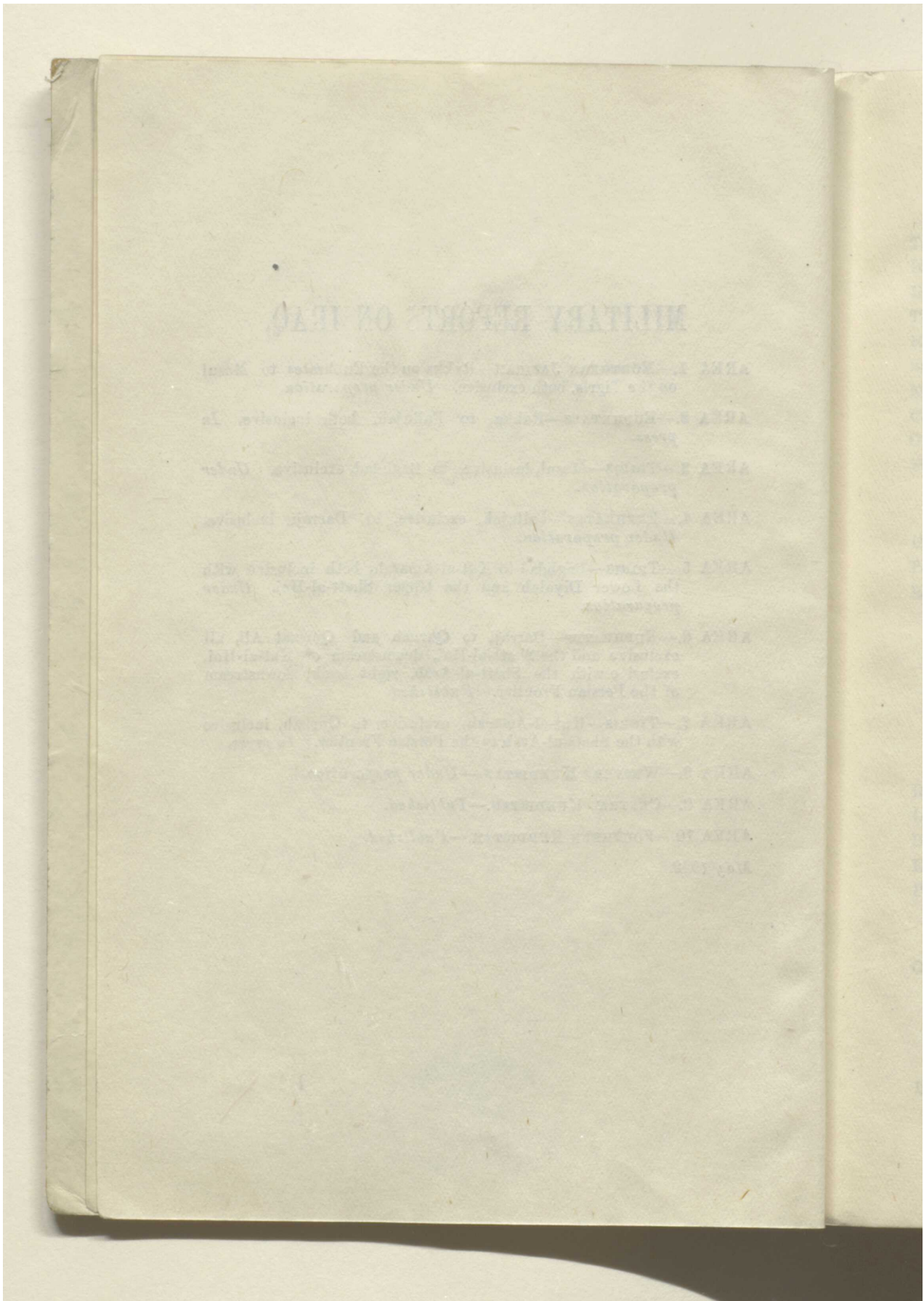


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CHAPTER I.

HISTORY.

General.—Owing to the absence of reliable data giving a consecutive record of this country its existing history cannot but be incomplete and, to some extent, inaccurate, as a portion of that which is available is derived from what has been passed down by word of mouth from one generation to another.

As regards the later history—outstanding events, in the order in which they took place, are tabulated below.

The history of the Muntafiq together with that of the Sa'dun (their ruling family) is dealt with separately.

General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
Basrah consisted of 10,000 houses.	1604	
The Shah of Persia demanded that the Pasha of Basrah should acknowledge the suzerainty of Persia, since Basrah had captured Portuguese trade after the fall of Hormuz and its evacuation by the Portuguese. This was refused. A Persian army therefore advanced on Basrah <i>via</i> Arabistan, but failed owing to the intervention of Portuguese vessels on the Karun.	1624	
A second Persian Army was sent against Basrah this time <i>via</i> Qurnah. This also was forced to retire.	1625	
Basrah came under Turkish control.	1669	

1

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٨ظ] (٤٥٢/٢١)

2

General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
Basrah occupied by the Persians.	1687	
Persians evacuated Basrah owing to plague. The city remained derelict till.	1691	
The Ottoman Government again took possession.	1695	
Persians besieged Basrah for 4 months and finally retired being unsuccessful.	1743	
	1747	The Muntafiq in rebellion against the Turks on account of tribute imposed upon them.
	1769	The Muntafiq, under Abdulla, again in rebellion against the Turks. Walls of Basrah reached. Cause as in 1747.
Basrah besieged by Persians under Karim Khan.	1775	
	1776	The Muntafiq helped the Turks to defend Basrah against the Persians, but were defeated and presumably submitted to the Persians till their departure in 1779.
Basrah under Sulaimani Agha capitulated (15th April) to Persians.	1776	

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٩٠] (٤٥٢/٢٢)

3

(9)

General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
Persians evacuated Basrah, as Sadiq Khan, being at Basrah at the time, wished to contest the Persian throne on the death of his brother Karim Khan.	1779	
Basrah eventually reverted peacefully to Turkish jurisdiction, but during the interim an Arab administration organised by the British Residency undertook temporary management.	1779	
	1787 (May)	Basrah was seized and governed by Thuwaini, the Sa'dum Shaikh of the Muntafiq.
	1787 (October)	Thuwaini was expelled from Basrah by Sulaiman Pasha, Governor of Baghdad.
	1797 to 1802	The Muntafiq formed the chief bulwark of Basrah against the Wahabis of Central Arabia (of whom Ibn Saud is the present leader).
	1798	The Muntafiq marched with the Turks into Hasa against the Wahabis.
	1807	The Muntafiq conquered the Qurnah tribes.
	1810 to 1817	The Muntafiq apparently in open rebellion against the Pasha of Baghdad.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٩٥] (٤٥٢/٢٣)

4

General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
The British Resident in Basrah became Political agent for Turkish Arabia.	1812	
	1813	Abdulla Pasha of Baghdad marched against the Muntafiq chief, Humud al Thamir and was defeated and killed. This resulted in a great increase in the power of the Sa'dun and the extension of their rule up to Samawah.
	1817	Daud Pasha of Baghdad tried to break up the Muntafiq by installing a rival chief. This intrigue failed.
	1831	Humud's son, Majid, regained the old independence and ascendancy of the Sa'dun.
Four iron built and heavily armed British steamers were placed on the rivers of Iraq. Two of these reconnoitred the Euphrates from Basrah to Meskene and found that river unsuitable for navigation by their class.	1840	
	1850	The Muntafiq were divided against themselves regarding the paramount Shaikhship. This was claimed by Faris bin Ajil and his cousin Mansur bin Rashid. The latter, although recognised by the Turks, was driven out by Faris. Trade suffered considerably and from this time onwards the Turkish hold on the Muntafiq strengthened.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [١٠] (٤٥٢/٢٤)

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5

General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
The "City of London" appeared and was the first ship to ply the waters of the Tigris for commercial purposes.	1861	
Baghdad and Constantinople connected by telegraph.	1861	
Regular overseas steam communication established between Iraq and the outside world.	1862	
	1863 and 1864	Fighting between Turks and Muntafiq on account of (1) increased revenue, (2) Turkish efforts to break up the confederation and (3) their attempts to deprive the Shaikh of the Muntafiq of his powers of punishment.
Land line telegraph was completed from Karachi to Baghdad <i>via</i> Gwadar.	1864	
Baghdad and Basrah connected by telegraph.	1865	
Nāsiriya built.	1867	
	1872	Nasir, Shaikh of the Muntafiq, was made Wali of Basrah wilaiyat in return for his services in Arabia. Turks soon considered his combined offices made him too powerful so in 1877 he was exiled to Constantinople.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [١٠ ظ] (٤٥٢/٢٥)

6

General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
	1881	The Muntafiq tribe rose in open rebellion against the Turkish Government. They attacked Nāsiriya and were beaten off. This rebellion was never properly quelled. The turks appear to have collected no taxes from this date.
	1899 and 1902	The Muntafiq approached the British Consul at Basrah for British protection. This was refused.
	1900 to 1905	The Muntafiq under Sa'dun Pasha harassed the Turks. Turks sent 3 punitive expeditions under Muhammad Pasha. Daghestani with no good result.
Madinah (under Hamud) defeated by Bani Mansur, Sharish and Nahairat under Mazyah with Kubashi as his Lieutenant.	1902	
	1905	The Muntafiq divided their allegiance between the two cousins Sa'dun Pasha and Falih Pasha (son of the exiled Nasir Pasha).

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [١١] (٤٥٢/٢٦)

History.	General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
e rose in ainst the ernment. Nāsiriya ten off. as never d. The o have es from		1908	Falih Pasha died leaving Sa'dun Pasha paramount. He exercised great tyranny.
proached nsul at h protec- refused.		1911	The Muntafiq tribesmen, urged on by Falih Pasha's sons, rose against Sa'dun Pasha. Sa'dun and his son Ajaimi held out until the Turks changed their policy, sided with the tribesmen, treacherously decoyed and captured Sa'dun, and exiled him to Aleppo where he died.
r Sa'dun l the sent 3 ns under Pasha. no good		1912	After Sa'dun's death the Muntafiq country was administered from Janu- ary—November by a Military Mutassarif, Farid Beg, who was a staunch supporter of the Committee of Union and Progress, and on friendly terms with Ajaimi. Ajaimi was on the side of the C. U. P. on account of the betrayal of his father by Saiyid Talib.
ed their en the i Pasha (son of asha).	C. U. P. temporarily over- thrown. Saiyid Talib paramount in Basrah.	Novr. 1912	Ajaimi attacked and robbed his cousin Mizyad Beg and was declared an out- law.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [١١ ظ] (٤٥٢/٢٧)

8

General History.	Date.	Muntafiq History.
C. U. P. resumed power.	Jany. 1913	Ajaimi once more on the "official" side and Saiyid Talib in the opposition.
	1913	During the whole year the Muntafiq country was in disorder. Ajaimi was officially recognised as Shaikh of the Muntafiq but was unable to control the tribes.
War declared.	1914 Augt.	
	Novr.	Ajaimi, who had been intriguing against Saiyid Talib, throw in his lot with the Turks.
		The Muntafiq league was induced to come into the war against us.
	1915	Their pacification began with the capture by the British of Nasiriyah and Sūq ash Shuyūkh.

HISTORY OF THE MUNTAFIQ CONFEDERATION AND THE SA'DŪN FAMILY.

1. *The Muntafiq Confederation.*—The Muntafiq Confederation is a powerful tribal league which occupies an area on the Euphrates from Darraji to Chabaish extending as far North as Hai town on the Gharrāf.

At the present day (May 1920) the link between the various units of the league is slender; it being no more than a common recognition of the now nominal paramount authority of the Sa'dūn.

The Sa'dūn are the ruling family of the Muntafiq and are descended from Mani, one of the Sharifs of Mecca, who, in about 1600 A.D., fled to the Euphrates to escape the consequences of a feud.

Mani married a daughter of the ruling family of the Bani Malik and had a son from her named Shabib.

The Bani Malik were attacked and heavily defeated by the Ajwad, Mani himself being killed. The Bani Malik made their escape into Najd, and took Shabib with them since he was the grandson of their own shaikh.

After an exile of 3 years the Bani Malik, reinforced from Central Arabia led by Shabib, fell upon and almost exterminated the Ajwad who were encamped at Safwan.

A few men and a total of forty women are said to have been all that were spared.

Shabib thus, by virtue of his military powers, became leader of the Bani Malik and over-lord of the Ajwad, this combination becoming so powerful that it was joined by the Bani Sa'id, a tribe of the Jazirah.

These three divisions formed, and still form the Muntafiq league.

2. *The Sa'dūn Family.*—The Sa'dūn, or the titular ruling family of the Muntafiq are Sunnis; the tribesmen of the Muntafiq are (with very few exceptions which are noted in the tribal lists) Shiahs.

Although the sedentary and "Donkey Bedouin" tribes of Mesopotamia are, for the most part, of good Arab stock and can claim descent from the best old blood of Arabia, they have lost caste by settling down and becoming Shiahs. They are now despised by the genuine Bedouin who will not inter-marry with them.

The Sa'dūn, though they have lived in Lower Mesopotamia since the 16th century, are in a separate category. Descended from the family of the Sharif of Mecca, Sunni to this day, and Bedouin in their manner of life they are accepted as equals by the pure Arabs of Arabia.

Up to about 1870 the Muntafiq tribes under the Sa'dūn, were almost independent of Turkish rule. They paid tribute to the Sa'dūn and not rent.

At this time the Shaikship was held by the Nasir Pasha (the founder of Nāsiriyyah) who, under the evil influence of Midhat Pasha, Wali of Baghdad, welcomed and introduced the Ottomanising influence among the Muntafiq which had so long been desired by the Turkish administration. Being backed up by Nasir Pasha and, the opportunity appearing favourable, the Turks at this juncture made a disastrous bid at a regular land settlement.

The Sa'dūn were bribed into accepting the change by being converted into regular landowners in place of their original positions as chiefs, receiving tribute from the owners of the land, who were the Muntafiq tribesmen.

The result of this change was that the tribesmen lost their status as landowners and became mere tenants. The whole of the arable land of Nāsiriyyah and Sūq ash Skuyūkh was then parcelled out by Tapu registration between the Sa'dūns and the Turkish Crown.

The tribes were not consulted and had no say in these arrangements.

The change was naturally a most disadvantageous and degrading one to them; and was and still is bitterly resented. We are now (May 1920) still involved in settling this legacy from Midhat Pasha.

From this period both the Sa'dūn chiefs and the Turkish rulers lost power over the tribes.

The Muntafiq district became lawless and unsettled. There was constant fighting either against the Turks on account of the non-payment of an increased rate of revenue, or amongst themselves on account of inter-family intrigues.

Finally in 1911 the Turkish Government was compelled to institute a committee of inquiry to investigate the cause of the rising against Sa'dūn Pasha by some of the Muntafiq tribes (mainly Abūdah, Azairij, Khafājah, Budūr and Ghazzi). This committee attributed the trouble to the fact that "The arable lands of the tribes were in the hands of a few powerful shaikhs who oppressed the tribesmen."

The result of this was that the Turks withdrew all official support from the Sa'dūn, completely reversed their policy and sought to enter into relations with the tribesmen in hopes of breaking up the tribal system (see under "Policy" in Chapter VI). Sa'dun Pasha was treacherously decoyed on board the gunboat *Marmaris* near Sūq and sent for confinement to Basrah; thence he was transferred to Aleppo *via* Baghdad where he died.

The position of the Sa'dūn therefore at this stage had become impossible. Deserted by the official backing of the Government and without power or influence over the tribes to enforce their will or

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even the rights they had acquired from the Ottoman Government, they were left friendless, helpless, and without rents.

In July 1915 Nāsiriya was occupied by us, but owing to the strong anti-British feeling among the tribes and to the activities of such men as Mizhar Pasha (a Circassian Turkish General with much influence among the tribes) and Sabri Beg (a Turkish cavalry leader) very little progress was made for some time.

In order temporarily to compensate the Sa'dūn for the loss of their rents and to help them, to some extent, to keep up their status as the ruling family we have since our occupation been paying cash allowances to certain members of the family. This is an unsatisfactory arrangement and will cease when a better solution of the problem is forthcoming.

Early in 1918 we opened up the Gharrāf by installing Political Officers at Shatrah and Qal'at Sikar.

In 1919 for the first time for many years the tribes not only paid us all the taxes we levied upon them but also paid up the proportion of the crop, levied by us, as payment of rent due to their landlords and hated enemy—the Sa'dūn.

Since 1903 until 1919 the Muntafiq country had paid no taxes to any Government and but little rent to its landlords, for so independent had the tribes become that they merely paid as much or as little as they pleased.

Insurrection and present situation in Muntafiq.—In 1920 taxes again ceased to be paid on account of the insurrection, due to a Jihad or Holy war being preached throughout the country. The first indication of internal disorder and unrest in the Muntafiq was apparent at the beginning of May, when disturbing reports arrived from Hillah and Shamiyah of secret pacts alleged to have been sworn by the leaders of the Gharrāf, Hillah, Diwaniyah and Shamiyah to tear up the railway line and otherwise resist Government. During May unrest was noticeable in Shatrah and Sūq and at the beginning of June the political situation gave rise to considerable uneasiness. In June and July the situation became serious, the railway line between Shamawah and Khidhr amongst other unsettling events being destroyed, whilst the Arabs were advancing on Al Khidhr, three miles from the Muntafiq boundary. The Muntafiq were still watching and waiting the turn of events. At the end of July a rising was planned in Qal'at Sikar and on August 12th, the Assistant Political Officer was compelled to evacuate. Consequent on this the situation at Shatrah became delicate and on August 23rd, the Assistant Political Officer, Shatrah, followed suit. Such disorders were bound to affect Sūq, which had hitherto remained quiet, and on September 1st, the Assistant Political Officer, Sūq, left for Nāsiriya. The town of Nāsiriya was never seriously threatened, though frequently sniped by day and night.

In spite of these disturbances the Muntafiq can hardly be said to have played a very great part in the insurrection and for this credit must be given especially to the British Political Officers and one or two shaikhs notably Khaiyūn al ' Ubaid, Salim al Khaiyūn and Badr al Rumayidh. Considering the events which took place on the border of the Muntafiq, viz., the cutting of the railway line, the disaster of the "Greenfly" and the murder of the two flying officers, the Muntafiq, well armed and famed for its martial spirit, may be said to have behaved most creditably during the six most critical months of the insurrection.

On the collapse of the insurrection the Muntafiq soon returned to the care of their crops. Permanent peace is, however, not yet to be expected on account of this and one other disturbing element, viz., the promise of a National Government immediately following this insurrection and its very rapid formation. The quick departure of British troops from the country and the formation of an apparently powerless Arab Government has set the minds of all in the Muntafiq wondering whether it will not be possible once again to cease paying taxes. The present attitude of the Muntafiq is therefore one of passive resistance to paying revenue and until force is brought to bear upon the offending tribes this attitude will not only remain but also spread. Murders, piracies and other disorders are at present infrequent, but the reason for this can be put down to the presence of British Political Officers and the knowledge of the power that they have at their command to punish.

It is impossible to re-instate the Sa'dūn on the land of their ancestors, as the feudal system has ceased to apply for too long; as a political factor, however, they must still be considered. The Sa'dūn family now consists of some 400—500 males.

The problems which confront anyone attempting to arrive at a just land settlement are most complicated, for the existing records are so inaccurate, and often contradictory, that it is almost impossible to determine who are now the rightful owners of the land.

The question has yet to be settled; and a solution will only be found when the rival agrarian claims of the Sa'dūn and the tribesmen are finally disposed of to their mutual satisfaction.

As a family the Sa'dūn have become most unpopular; this being very largely due to the tyrannical conduct of Sa'dūn Pasha. Their social position, however, still stands. They are a pleasant people to meet and show their breeding in their looks and manners.

With the exception of Ajaimi there is no outstanding personality in the family, consequently its political influence at present (May 1920) is not great.

The Sa'dūn are, however, the natural leaders of the Muntafiq and if a man of strong personality develops he is likely to make for himself, and retain, a commanding position in the Muntafiq confederation.

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CHAPTER II.

GEOGRAPHY.

(1) General geographical description.

The area dealt with in this report covers approximately 12,000 square miles. It forms part of the great alluvial plain of Irāq, which, except for the Arabian Desert which rises to a height of 100 feet above sea level and for the isolated hill named Jabal Sanam (10 miles south of Zubāir which rises to a height of 503 feet) there is no spot which is higher than 45 feet above the sea. This altitude is attained on the Shatt al Gharrāf, 3 miles downstream of Hai town. The heights, above mean sea level, of certain other localities are as under:—

Sūq ash Shuyūkh		10 feet.
Nāsiriyyah		15 "
Shatrah		30 "
Qal' at Sikar		39 "

The effect of the tide reaches as far up the Euphrates as Chabaish.

(2) Physical Features.

The area is one of extremes, graduating from arid unproductive desert, into desert lands suitable for the grazing of camels and sheep, into fertile and cultivated areas due to controlled irrigation, into marsh land which in its turn merges into a vast expanse of open water.

(a) Rivers.

The Euphrates flows through the area from West to East, entering it at Darrāji and passing Nāsiriyyah in one stream. Downstream of Nāsiriyyah the Euphrates splits up into many channels which find their way into the Hammar Lake. This Lake, especially to the North, is bordered by vast marshes in which dense reeds grow to a height of 20 feet. The Euphrates has two main channels.

The old channel flows past Chabaish, at the eastern end of the Hammar Lake and joins the Tigris at Qurnah. This is the channel for steamer navigation.

The new channel which winds through the shallow expanse of open water lying to the north of the Basrah-Nāsiriyyah Railway, finally finding its main outlet into the Shatt al Arab at Qurmat Ali.

The Tigris does not traverse this area but during the flood season from (February to the end of June) much Tigris water reaches it by means of the:—

Shatt al Gharrāf which is a distributary of the Tigris. The Gharrāf takes off from the Tigris at Kūt al Amārah and flows from North to South entering this area 3 miles south of Hai town, finally emptying itself into the Hammar Lake by several channels. In former days it joined the Euphrates at Nāsiriyyah, but the southern portion of this channel has silted up and the natural line of flow is now *via* the Bad'ah channel, which takes off 3 miles North of Shatrah in a south easterly direction. After traversing a series of lakes its waters join those of the Euphrates in the Hammar Lake itself.

The amount of water in the Gharrāf is entirely dependent on the level of the Tigris at Kūt al Amārah.

Except for pools, which become brackish, the Gharrāf runs dry by September and remains so till about the end of December or later, dependent on the Tigris rise.

The Shatt al Arab flows from Qurnah to the sea at Fāo and is the name given to the fine open channel, fit for ocean going vessels, which is formed by the combined waters of the Euphrates and Tigris, augmented, at Muhammerah, by those of the Karun. Its right bank forms the lower portion of the north eastern boundary of this area. It is tidal throughout its length.

(b) Flood Area.

During the season when the Euphrates and Tigris are in flood, (March to the end of June) it is estimated that 4,000 square miles, (out of the total of the 12,000 which comprise this area) are inundated and covered mostly by "Sheet water," the borders and other shallower portions of which are absolute marsh, with dense reeds, and intersected by many channels, known only to the local inhabitants. As the ground level rises these marshes gradually merge into dry land.

As the rivers subside, so also the water level in the flood area falls, leaving the marshes to dry by slow degrees; the shallower "sheet water" then becomes marsh, the deeper "sheet water" remaining in the form of permanent lakes of which the most important are the Hammar, Sudaifah, Abu 'Ajl, Ghamūgah, al Hassūnah, Tallyah and Butniyah.

(c) Desert and cultivated areas.

The remainder of the country is either desert or cultivated land, of which the latter owes its fertility to water distributed by irrigation

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channels taking off direct from the main rivers or from distributary canals.

(d) *Soil and Grazing.*

The soil is of calcareous loam and of great fertility. Shortly after the first rains have fallen (usually December) large areas of the previously bare brown desert become green with grass affording good grazing for sheep and cattle which lasts till the end of May. After this date, except for the scrub (shok) which affords good grazing for camels, the desert is absolutely bare.

(e) *Rate of formation of land at the North end of the Persian Gulf.*

According to early Sumerian records in the form of cuneiform tablets only recently discovered, Eridhu (the present "Abu Shahrāin, 23 miles south-west of Nāsiriya") was the earliest of the Sumerian cities. Shortly after its foundation about 5,000 B. C. Eridhu became an important Sumerian sea port on the Persian Gulf. It is described in cuneiform literature as "standing on the shore of the sea." To-day the mounds of Eridhu, surrounded by desert, lie some 160 miles distant from the Persian Gulf. From the above and other similar cuneiform records it is possible to trace roughly the northern limits of the Persian Gulf at about 5,000 B. C. These are as follows; from the Arabian Plateau the coast line ran approximately due North to Eridhu and crossed the Euphrates about 11 miles north-west of Nāsiriya, thence it ran just south of Shatrah and continued in a general North Easterly direction to the Tigris, turning south-east below the Elamite hills (Modern Arabistān).

The above together with other details admit of fairly accurate figures being arrived at which show the rates at which, from time to time, the land has advanced southwards at the head of the Persian Gulf. This advance is due to the accumulation of sediment brought down in suspension by the Tigris, the Euphrates and the Karun and deposited on the sea bed as soon as the current is checked by the Shatt al Arab reaching open water.

Starting from the earliest times :—

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| (a) Eridhu was a sea port in 5,000 B. C. }
and is now 160 miles from the sea. } | Rate of advance 121
feet per annum. |
| (b) Muhammerah is known to have been }
a sea port in the time of Alexander }
the Great who died in B. C. 323, }
Muhammerah is now 50 miles from }
the sea. } | Rate of advance 113
feet per annum. |
| (c) Present day tests show that the rate of advance now is 90 feet
per annum. | |

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This gradual reduction in the rate of the formation of the land is natural—for as the "delta" increases in length so the slope of the river bed becomes more level, thereby reducing the velocity of the current on which the amount of sediment brought down in suspension depends.

(3) *Lines of approach.*

Owing to the variety of physical features of this district, movement by any force, whether large or small, requires special consideration according to season.

(a) *By Land. In the rainy season.*—(December—April, both inclusive). During or for two days after a heavy fall of rain the passage of wheeled transport, and frequently of camels, is impossible. Except in Basrah and its vicinity there are no metalled roads. The surface of any unmetalled track when wet become one of soft sticky clay, which rapidly becomes worse the more it is used. In the dry intervals between the falls of rain, generally speaking, the going is good—"good" being a comparative term. There are no actual "roads," but, when dry and away from the marsh area the surface of the land is usually suitable for light motor lorries and always so for cavalry, infantry and pack transport. Tracks which become known for the time being as "roads," lead across it from one place to another. The main obstacles met with are wet or dry irrigation cuts of varying depth and sizes. Details as regards communications will be found in Chapter VIII.

In the non-rainy season.—(May to November both inclusive). The marsh area is more extensive; there is, however, little fear of progress being held up on account of rain: the country therefore where dry, is generally speaking, traversable as before mentioned. The question of heat during the summer months and the difficulties connected with the supply of drinking water must be borne in mind.

Lines of approach from East and West.

Troops accompanied by light motor lorry transport could therefore be moved without great difficulty in the cold weather, and when the surface of the land was not rendered impassable by rain, between Basrah and Fão, and between Basrah, Nāsiriyyah and Darājī in the vicinity of the Railway Line.

Owing to the existence of the marsh area, any land line of approach more than a few miles to the north of the Railway Line between Sūq ash Shuyūkh and Basrah would be impossible.

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Line of approach North and South.

From the north the only land line is a (desert) road from Kūt-al-Hai to Nāsiriyyah which in general follows the course of the Shatt-al-Gharrāf, and is passable except in a few places for all arms as far as Shatrah, after which, where the bridges or lack of them over the water cuts intersecting the road do not permit the passage of motor or wheeled transport, an alternative route exists along the dry bed of the Shatt-al Shatrah which is suitable for all arms and heavy lorries.

Generally speaking, the former road between Shatrah and Nāsiriyyah is passable for wheels only after considerable labour in bridging the innumerable water-cuts. In the flood season of February-March and April the whole country is liable to inundation, which makes the road impassable and is likely to nullify all the work that may have previously been expended on it. L. A. M. cars could proceed over the whole road but would be of little use tactically, as owing to the nullahs and water-cuts on each side, they would be unable to leave it.

Columns operated over the whole of the road in January, 1921, without any difficulty, all repairs having previously been undertaken by the local tribes.

From the South there is no suitable line of approach owing to the southern boundary being the Arabian desert.

The railway, metre gauge, is constructed so as to run at all seasons, being built above flood level. It runs from Basrah, South of the southern shores of the flood area, to Darrāji and Baghdad *via* Ur, from where a branch line leads to Nāsiriyyah. The railway is undoubtedly the best lateral line of approach, but it is extremely vulnerable to attack by tribesmen, some of whom are subsidised to protect it; its numerous bridges being points which are easy to destroy and extremely difficult to replace.

Stoppage of Railway in 1920.

On the 2nd July 1920 during the insurrection the railway line between Khidhr and Samāwah was destroyed. The Ur-Samāwah line was therefore abandoned, but the railway camp at Samāwah was not evacuated until the end of August, when the line from Samāwah to Diwaniyah was also abandoned.

(b) By water.

The Euphrates affords a permanent line of approach from both West and East for any sized river craft—their draught being governed only by the depth of the shallower part of the Hammar Lake. This present time [1921] is as low as 2 ft. in the channel, but the

water is abnormally low this year and previously boats drawing up to 2 ft. 6 in. have found sufficient water at all times.

The *Gharrāf* affords a temporary line of approach from the North. From about the end of January to the end of June ships from the Tigris (up to 6 ft. draught in high flood) can reach the Bad'ah Canal take off (3 miles North of Shatrah); from where launches of 2' 6" draught have been known to reach the Hammar *viâ* the Dad'ah channel and intervening lakes.

(4) Wells and water supply.

(a) *River supply, Euphrates and Shatt-al-Arab.*—Permanent supply of drinking water.

Shatt-al-Gharrāf.—This river begins to flow about the end of December—dependent always on the level of the Tigris at Kūtal Amārah. While flowing the water is always sweet and drinkable.

The flow from Kūt usually ceases in mid-August and the water continues to drain off slowly till the end of September, a small flow normally passing down the Bad'ah till early October. At Qal'at Sikar there is always a large stretch of water in the river bed, several miles in length. Downstream of Qal'at Sikar there are pools about every 3 miles. They become brackish but the larger ones are always drinkable in an emergency. The Arabs water their sheep and drink themselves from any pool but owing to dead frogs and animal urine the stagnant water becomes foul.

(b) *Wells.*—Wells sunk to the depth of a few feet anywhere in the dry bed of the Gharrāf will yield drinkable water.

The following wells exist in the Shamīyah, South of the Railway line:—

Birjisīyah.

5 miles West of Zubāir. There is a large number of wells in this district, the water from which is used for irrigating melon gardens. The water though cold and clear is brackish and fit only for animals and local inhabitants although that of the best wells has been drunk by British troops. The water is drawn from the wells by donkeys.

Baswah.

26 miles South West of Shagrah. There are more than 50 wells which are of the type known to Arabs as "Husiyan"—being holes 10 feet in diameter and 15 feet deep which are dug in the sand near a river bed. The Baswah water is good and unlimited at all seasons.

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Bissīyah.

6 miles South by West of Baswah. There are 50 wells here of the Husiyan type. Water good and unlimited at all seasons.

Chabdah.

15 miles South West of Ghabashīyah. There are over 20 wells, mostly dry. There are only three containing drinking water, which is slightly brackish. Water is 45 feet below the surface. Wells are brick built and circular with a diameter of 15 feet. Gear for drawing water is required. Supply practically unlimited and abundant at all seasons.

Dafinah.

30 miles North West of Shagrah. The wells of the Husiyan type (see Baswah). They afford good drinking water throughout the summer. Supply is practically unlimited. Wells are similar to these at Khanāgah (see below).

Dirhamīyah.

2½ miles South of Zubāir. Drinking water is supplied to Zubāir from here out of temporary wells, of which approximately 150 are always kept open. These wells are merely pits dug to a depth of 4 ft. to 5 ft.; digging is purposely stopped as soon as 6 inches of water is found at the bottom of the pit, since the deeper the pit the more bitter the water. Daily the pits are emptied and on the following morning the water has again risen to 6 inches. The pits are kept open for about six weeks, after which the water becomes too bitter to drink; these pits are then filled in and fresh pits dug. Old pits can be dug up the following year and used again for drinking water. The sweetness of the water depends on the rains, so that from April the water gradually becomes more and more brackish until November, when it is almost undrinkable.

There are also 15 permanent wells, made of brick, about half a mile distant. These contain brackish water used only for irrigation. In these wells water is to be found about 16 ft. below the surface.

Hasāmah.

8 miles South East of Jalibah Railway Station 1 large and 2 small wells. Water is sweet but 90 feet below ground, necessitating use of gear. Supply unlimited at all seasons. Wells are circular and brick built.

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Jalīb Sad'ūn.

9 miles West of Tel Jibārah Railway Station. The water is good and perennial. Sufficient supply for 400 men and animals.

Khabrah Rukbi.

15 miles South West of Khabrah Sufi. There is a pond here which is a natural basin in solid rock, 2 acres in size. It is low lying. There is plenty of water in winter but it is undrinkable except for animals. It dries up in summer. The Bedawins have built a mound, visible for 5 miles, to mark the spot.

Khabrah Sufi.

35 miles South of Kuraiz. A pond of water fit only for animals and in winter, exactly similar to Khabrah Rukbi.

Khanūgah.

(Atu Ghār) 20 miles West by South of Jalibah Railway Station. There are 3 or 4 wells, but more could be dug if required. The ground is soft. Water at all seasons is sweet. The existing wells give a sufficient supply for 5,000 men with their transport at all seasons. Wells are circular, 10 feet in diameter and 15 feet deep. Water 11-12 feet from the surface. Gear required. Wells refill very fast, and could be drawn upon continuously.

Nabha.

7 miles North West of Abu Ghār. No wells exist but water is obtained by digging to a depth of 1 to 2 feet in winter and to 10 feet in summer. Water when obtained is always sweet. There is a ruined fort here.

Qatīyah.

10 miles South West of Zubāir. Two wells 15 feet in diameter. Water at 25 feet. Lifted by donkeys and overhead wheel. Water is perennial and sweet. The Shaikh of Zubāir gets his own private water supply from here in summer when Zubāir water is salt.

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Qusair.

Estimated at 15 miles South by West of Tel Abu Shahrain. There are 6 wells stone lined where the water is always sweet. In summer there is a supply sufficient for 1,000 men and their transport, in winter supply is sufficient for double that amount. Wells are circular and 10 feet in diameter. They refill slowly. In summer water is 11 feet below ground level. In winter water is 8 feet below ground level.

Rafa'iyah.

9 miles South West by South of Chuwaibdah and 20 miles West of Zubair. One well brick lined. Water is sweet at all seasons and is of excellent quality. Supply sufficient for 3,000 men with transport at all seasons; and for a larger number in winter. The well is circular and has a diameter of only 4 feet. Depth to water 100 feet. Stone lined. Fills up immediately and will stand being drawn upon continually. Gear required. It lies in a hollow and is difficult to see until quite near.

Safwan.

19 miles South of Zubair. About 20 wells a few of which are brick lined. Water is sweet at all seasons. Diameter varies from 9-12 feet. All wells are circular. In summer water is about 20 feet below ground level and is sufficient for 3,000 men and their transport.

In winter water is about 17 feet level and is sufficient for 8,000 men and their transport.

Water can be drawn almost continually from these wells without their running dry as they refill very rapidly.

Salabiyah.

11 miles West of Tel al Lahm. 50 wells of good water, drinkable at all seasons.

Shagrah.

Estimated at 25 miles South West of Jalibah Railway Station. Numerous wells exist. The surface is hard rock through which the water is reached by means of natural sloping tunnels along which men can go with some inconvenience. The supply is said to be inexhaustible but by the process of drawing is slow. The water is

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about 6 feet below the surface at all seasons. Gear is necessary. They refill slowly. The water in a well is sweet when either it is first opened or when an old well has been re-opened. After a well has been used for a long time the water becomes unpleasant to taste, the well is then filled in and an old well is re-opened.

Shaibah.

The few wells which exist at Shaibah contain brackish water, not good for horses or mules, though they will drink it in small quantities, when necessity compels them. These wells are to be found near the fort about one mile and a half N. of Shaibah railway station. Drinking water for the garrison at Shaibah is brought along a pipe line from No. 7 Wharf, Magil. The water is pumped from Magil to Zubair, where there is a bye-pass in the pipe line admitting the water into two tanks each containing 100,000 gallons; from there the water is pumped to Shaibah by means of a boosting plant, where it enters two pits of the same cubic capacity as the tanks at Zubair. The sides of these pits are made of putty clay and reinforced brick-work. The water is chlorinated at Shaibah.

Since Makina railway station has also to be supplied from the same pipe line, it is not possible to provide Shaibah with more than 100,000 gallons daily; this has been frequently found to be insufficient during the summer, so that it has been necessary at times to send water by train to Shaibah. The limit which can be supplied in one day is 180,000. The pipe line, 6 inch, is very old.

Zubair.

The water in the numerous wells of Zubair is so brackish as to be only of use for washing. One well in the middle of the town, contains water fit for animals but undrinkable for the inhabitants. Water for drinking is obtained from Dirhamiyah, 2½ miles South of Zubair, and is carried on donkeys to the town—where it is bought by the inhabitants. It is sweet only from December to the end of March after which it becomes more and more brackish until after the next rain falls, usually in December. (See Zubair town—Para. VI.)

(5). *Crops.*

1. *Winter crops or "Shitwi."* These are sown between November and February and are reaped from mid-May to mid-June. They consist of wheat and barley in approximately equal quantities.

2. *Summer crops or "Saiji."*—These are sown in June and reaped in October.

They consist of rice, idhra and mash.

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3. *The cultivated areas*, generally speaking are :—

- (a) *Shitwi*.—From this area boundary (3 miles downstream of Hai town) the junction of the Bad'ah and the Gharrāf (11 miles South of Shatrah) for a strip of an average depth of 6 miles on both banks of the Gharrāf.

On the Eastern shores of the chain of lakes from Tel Loh to Fathi (on the Taliyah Lake) there is a cultivated belt 5 miles wide.

From Darrāji to 12 miles downstream of Nāsiriyyah there are disconnected belts of cultivation on both banks of the Euphrates varying from 3 to 5 miles in width.

From this point to one mile downstream of Sūq there is a belt of Shitwi cultivation on the right bank extending for an average width of 5 miles. Shitwi is also grown on the left bank along this stretch, but it is mainly rice land, and winter crops here are liable to be destroyed by floods.

From Shatrah to Nāsiriyyah the soil is suitable for winter crops but water for this area is a difficult problem for which various experiments have been tried. Winter crops cannot normally be grown here except on the lake edges unless the ground is rendered suitable by abnormal rain, very high floods or a specially organised irrigation scheme.

- (b) *Saifi, Rice*.—Along the Western edges of the following lakes :—Sudaifah, Abu 'Ajil and Ghamūgah for an average depth of 15 miles. This belt is not continuous.

All round Sūq ash Shuyūkh to the edge of the Hammar Lake on the East and to a point 12 miles downstream of Nāsiriyyah on the West. Its depth is up to 8 miles from the Euphrates bank.

Idhra, Mash and Simsim.—On the edges of all lakes after the water has receded and at all other places where the soil happens to be sufficiently damp owing to recent rain, inundation or irrigation.

4. *Destructive agents to crops* are hail, floods, locusts, caterpillars and the wheat disease known as "Hamara".

5. *General note*.—The high water season may be said to last from the middle or end of February to August inclusive.

The low water season may be said to last from September inclusive to middle or end of February.

It is clear therefore that the time of the sowing of the summer and winter crops (Saifi and Shitwi) does not synchronise exactly with the high and low water seasons.

The Shitwi crop depends entirely on the annual rise of the river. A temporary rise cannot affect the crops, the banks being so steep that such a rise would fail to command the land.

The success or failure of the Winter Crop from year to year therefore is a matter of luck dependent on climatic conditions.

A year with but little rain and an abnormally low river necessitates the failure of the Winter Crop causing much poverty and distress among the cultivators and incidentally a considerable reduction in revenue. The agriculturalist therefore, as usual, lives in a constant state of anxiety. He waits for a certain rise in water levels before he can sow his winter crop (a suitable temporary rise usually occurs in January). No sooner is this accomplished but he counts the days ahead, watching the water levels for the opportunity of sowing or planting (in the case of rice) his summer crop, often reaping the former about the same time as he puts in the latter.

In the Gharrāf district rain has very little effect; it can merely be said to assist the crops, which are in no way dependent on it. In the event of the Gharrāf failing to rise sufficiently high to irrigate the surrounding country, the crops would fail however much rain fell that year.

6. In this connection see:—

Appendix "B". Note on the Hammar Lake.

" "E". " " " " Dates.

7. *Methods of Irrigation.* (a) *By flow.*—Water being distributed over the land by means of channels cut away from the main river, the beds of which are maintained at the required depth and slope to cause the natural flow desired. These main channels have smaller ones taking off from them which in turn feed yet smaller ones according to local requirements.

(b) *By Tidal action.*

(c) *By Pumping Engines* erected on the river bank, usually driven by oil.

(d) *By "Naor" or Persian wheel,* usually worked by animal draught.

(e) *By Karid.*—A skinful of water being hauled to the top of the river bank by animal power pulling over a wheel or pulley. By means of a simple contrivance the skin automatically empties itself into an irrigation channel.

(f) *By Dalia.*—This is a "scoop" which is hauled to the surface of a field from water level by a man operating the pivoted pole (weighted at the far end) to which the "scoop" is attached.

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(g) *By Mutba*.—This consists of two persons throwing water on to cultivation by means of ropes attached to a shallow tray.

Generally speaking all cultivation on a large scale is watered by "Flow"; only vegetables, small patches of lucerne and occasionally date gardens are watered by "Lift".

(6) *Towns.*

The following is a short description of each of the principal towns situated in this area:—

Ashar and Basrah.

These two towns combined together with certain neighbouring villages constitute the Municipality of Basrah which is bounded:—

On the North by the Rubāt Creek.

" " South " " Khaurah Creek.

" " East " " Shatt al Arab.

" " West " " Desert.

It lies on the right bank of the Shatt al Arab, 70 miles by river from the Persian Gulf.

The population of the Municipality totals 40,997 excluding any members of the Army of Occupation. This total is made up as under:—

Sunnis	6,620
Shiahs	25,813
Jews	6,288
Christians	2,057
Others	219
	40,997

Communications.

Basrah is connected by water to Muhammerah, the Persian Gulf and Qurnah by the Shatt al Arab

to Baghdad from Qurnah by the Tigris.

to Nāsiriya and beyond from Qurnah by the Euphrates.

to Ahwaz by the Karūn.

It is connected by metre gauge *Railway* to Baghdad *via* Zubāir, Diwaniyah and Hillah.

It is connected by *land routes*, normally passable for Ford cars and light lorries, to Fāo, Qurnah, Zubāir and Nāsiriya.

A powerful wireless-station exists. Telegraphic and cable communications are dealt with in Chapter VIII.

The following is an estimate of the supplies available in the town.

Wheat.—There are always at least 4,000 tons of this grain available. This amount is increased in August after harvest. A small quantity is exported to England. It is grown principally at Hillah, Amārah and on the Gharrāf.

Barley.—About 6,000 tons available. The yearly harvest which comes to Basrah is about 10,000 tons. It is grown at Hillah, Amārah and on the Gharrāf.

Rice.—About 4,000 tons are available. The amount of the harvest which comes to Basrah of rice is about 6,000 tons and is grown chiefly at Amārah, Hillah, Sūq ash Shuyūkh and on the Gharrāf. The rice is not as good as that from India.

Aerodrome.—There is an emergency landing ground at Tanuman on the left bank of the Shatt al Arab. A new aerodrome has been taken into use on the plateau at Shaibah which is 1,000 yards square and fit for landing at any season and for all types of machines.

Camping grounds.—Are extensive and good. Prepared camps exist at Makiua and Ma'qil.

The town of Ashar is situated on the Shatt al Arab at the take off of the creek that bears its name. Basrah lies two miles distant up this creek. In pre-war days the Ashar Creek was the main line of communication between the two towns. Since then two good roads have been constructed suitable for motor traffic. Ashar, from its position, is capturing more and more of the trade, while Basrah is becoming more and more residential.

Previous to our occupation the water supply for the majority of the people was the Ashar Creek, which, at that time, being also the general cess-pool, swimming bath and laundry, was a prolific carrier of water borne diseases. The well-to-do inhabitants used to buy water which was drawn from the centre of the Shatt al Arab and carried in barrels by means of bellums to Basrah and Ashar for sale. There is now a regular water supply from stand pipes. Both towns are lit by electricity.

The town has prospered greatly in wealth and civilisation since the war. Trade has been brisk and there is no lack of remunerative work for all. This, together with the fact that the inhabitants are more in touch with the outer world has combined to make them markedly progressive and more inclined to material gain than to political agitation or fanaticism.

Basrah in Turkish times was notorious for its lack of law and order, nor were murders in broad daylight uncommon or as a rule hazardous to the murderers. The town now shows a high standard of public

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Chabaish.—Consists of 3,000 reed huts and is built along the left bank of the Euphrates six miles downstream of the exit of that river from the Hammar Lake. It has 4 miles of river frontage, and has an average depth of 100 yards. Population is 11,000 souls. The village is built up on layers of cut reeds in order to place the huts above water level when the Euphrates is in flood in summer. It can only be approached by water at any season, either by means of the main Euphrates channel by craft up to the size of river steamers or by mashufs from the surrounding marshes. There is no dry camping space either in winter or summer and no possible landing ground for aeroplanes.

Fāo.—Consists of a Customs house, telegraph office, and four or five other brick buildings with about 600 yards of river frontage. At high tide motor launches can come along side but not at low tide.

Khamisiyah.—Is situated 9 miles in a direct line South of Sūq ash-Shaykh, and is one of the Desert Towns at which the Bedawin tribes call to replenish their supplies of food and clothing. No caravan can however be supplied without our permission.

Khamisiyah is an oasis in the desert with date palms. Its population is 3,000, all of whom are Arabs. The town is roughly square in plan with broad streets, a bazaar, an open enclosure for grain and a square to accommodate the camels of the Bedawin visitors who either buy supplies or exchange their live stock for them. A large Mosque, the gift of Fali Pasha al Sa'dun, with its leaning tower, is a prominent landmark. The wall that at one time surrounded the town is now very incomplete. Khamisiyah is supplied by Sūq with its requirements which are mainly the food and clothing which are always in demand by the Bedawin tribes. These supplies are carried by donkey except from mid-April to the end of July when, owing to Euphrates flood, transport is by bellum or mashuf.

The only local industry worthy of mention is the production of salt.

Camping space is unlimited.

There is no made aerodrome but there is good and unlimited space on the desert anywhere to the South and West of the town. Surface after rain would be very soft.

Khamisiyah was founded by Abdullah ibn Khamis, the father of Hamad, the present Shaikh. Hamad is very friendly to the British, and is reliable; he is a Sunni and a Najid and despises the settled river-side Arabs. He is all for peace and quiet.

The Shaikh of Khamisiyah is not administered, except indirectly, by the British. He is not however an independent Shaikh, and holds his position solely in virtue of recognition by Government.

Communications.—Khamisiyah is connected with:—

(a) *By Land.*

Tel al Lahm 7 miles. Lorries.

Nāsiriyaḥ.—Two routes (1. *Vid Ur* 44 miles. Light lorries.)
(2. Direct 30 miles. Ford vans with difficulty.)

Sūq ash Shuyūkh.—10 miles. Pack only.

(b) *By Water.*

Sūq ash Shuyūkh.—Bellums and mashufs from mid-April to the end of July.

Aerodromes.—Unlimited landing space outside the town. An emergency landing ground 400 yards square not in regular use. Surface fair.

Transport available.—

20 Donkeys.

20 Bellums. (2—4 tons each.)

Although hundreds of camels come into Khamisiyah yet they can scarcely be said to be available for transport as they are usually required by the tribesmen to carry back supplies to their desert homes.

Karrādi.—Is a village on the left bank of the Gharrāf, 10 miles south of Qal'at Sikar. It was built in about 1895 and is populated by the Kurds and Arabs (who came from Wasit when the Shatt al Ama dried up) and by numerous refugees from Qal'at Sikar. Karrādi maintains a flourishing trade and is increasing in size. Population 5,000.

Madīnah.—Consists of approximately 2,500 reed huts, with a mud built bazaar of 30 shops which are roofed. It is situated on the right bank of the Euphrates and about 10 miles (crow fly) south west of Qurnah. Its population is about 10,000 and it can only be approached by water at any season. Its inhabitants are all Arabs. Madīnah is a collection of numerous villages, all built very close together, which are protected from floods in the high river season by a large circular bund, 10 miles in circumference.

Nāsiriyaḥ.—Was built by Nasir Pasha about the year 1867. It is situated on the left bank of the Euphrates and, being low lying, relies for its protection from Euphrates flood mainly on the important Abu Jidāhah bund, which is upstream of it and on the left bank. Nasir Pasha wished to build the town on higher ground further downstream but was overruled by Sa'dan Pasha who considered that in time of trouble whoever had the control of the Abu Jidāhah bund controlled the situation. In order to protect the town from destruction by floods when the Euphrates is high further extensive bunds have been constructed on both banks which have to be carefully

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watched and maintained. Where necessary these are built up to a height of 20 feet. The town is surrounded by a wall 8 feet high, constructed in 1915, in which are built nine defensive posts at irregular intervals. It has 3 gates, the Pulford Gate on the West, the Shatrah Gate on the North and the Gorringer Gate on the East; all these are well constructed with strong wooden doors.

The main building is the old Turkish Serai, which has been much improved by the British. It is exceptionally well built.

The city measures 1650 x 570 yards. Nāsiriya has a total of 1,000 brick houses, 500 shops, 21 khans, each capable of billeting 50 men, an electric power station, an ice factory, two good aerated water factories, two flour mills using oil engines, 10 bakeries and 3 Turkish baths.

Of the 100 houses above-mentioned only 50 could be utilised for billeting troops, and then only in small numbers. The bazaar is well stocked and the streets are unusually broad and straight. Owing to latrines and incinerators being used, the town is sanitary. The population in 1920 was 6,523 made up as under; excluding all members of M.E.F.

Arabs	4,742
Jews	521
Christians	21
Sabeans	633
Persians	300
Turks	23
Kurds	281
Indians	2

In 1920 of this total population 2,073 were adult males, 2,761 were adult females and 1689 were children under 16 years of age.

Supplies on a rough estimate are available as follows:—

	Tons.	Season.
Wheat	900	1st May to 30th September
Barley	1,500	Ditto.
Rice	1,050	1st November to end of April.
Idhra	2,250	1st August to end of September
Mash	15	Ditto.
Lucerne	1½	Daily.
Sheep	700	"
Cows	100	"
Vegetables	1½	Daily for months of May, June, July, August and September.

The above are surplus to local requirements and are brought into Nāsiriyyah by tribal people.

The undermentioned transport is available :—

Camels		Nil.	but 1,500 could be obtained locally from tribes if they were in the district.
Mules		60	
Donkeys		100	These figures could be increased if demands were sent to surrounding tribal shaikhs.
Bellams		100	

The town is connected by metre gauge railway with Baghdad and Basrah *via* Ur junction.

Land Communications.—To Ur, Basrah, Darrāji and Khamisiyah by Ford Car except during or after heavy rain. In all cases, except to Ur and Khamisiyah, the going is difficult. There is no road to Basrah, the best alignment is *via* Khamisiyah and thence close to the railway line.

Water Communication.—All seasons with Darrāji, Sūq and Basrah by the Euphrates *via* the Hammar Lake.

Aerodrome.—There is a good aerodrome for all types of machines. Surface rather soft but very level. No vegetation on aerodrome. It is situated one mile south of town on right bank Euphrates. Size 600 yards by 500 yards.

Telegraph and Telephone.—There is one telegraph line *via* Shatrah and Qal'at Sikar to Kūt, one line to Sūq ash Shuyūkh and the main lines to Baghdad and Basrah (see Chapter VII). There is telephone communication to Shatrah and Sūq ash Shuyūkh (speaking over the telegraph wire). There is telephone communication also with Ur Junction and Nāsiriyyah city and camp (the latter being on the right bank of the Euphrates).

There are no outstanding industries in the town. The Arabs make bricks and hubs, and weave abas. The fish industry is large and flourishing. The water supply of the town is from the river and drawn by hand. The maximum breadth of the Euphrates at Nāsiriyyah is 250 yards. It is crossed by means of a bridge of boats, 24 in number; the bridge is 13 feet wide, 680 feet long and capable of carrying motor lorries.

Qal'at Sikar.—Is situated on the left bank of the Gharrāf midway between Hai town and Shatrah. It consists of 500 houses of which 100 are of mud, the majority being brick built. There is a bazaar of 200 shops. The town has two large brick gates and is surrounded by a mud wall with two fortified posts. The population is two-thirds Arabs and one-third Kurds; the latter are actually Lurs, from Pusht-i-Kuh. Fruit and vegetable gardens flourish for 600 yards downstream of the town. Up to about 1860, according to local information, the land all round the Gharrāf was the haunt of the lion and the wild pig. The

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few inhabitants were almost entirely Bedawin. One Sikar built a fort on the present site of Qal'at Sikar, and adopted the son of a negro woman who gave birth to him on her return after capture by the Muntafiq under Ajil as Sa'dūn. The child's name was Haji Said. He was eventually recognised by the Sa'dūn as Governor of the district. He was a man of energy and brought merchants from Baghdad and many Kurds to settle in the district. Qal'at Sikar has been twice flooded and rebuilt. It flourished until recently when the weakness of the Turkish rule gave the tribe their chance, and made the trade routes and surroundings insecure. Large numbers of inhabitants therefore left Qal'at Sikar and settled in Karrādi and elsewhere.

Aerodrome.—The landing ground is not being maintained (July 1921) but the position would be useful in the event of a forced landing in this district. The nature of the surface was good (June 1920) and approximately 400 yards by 400 yards. The position of the landing ground is 1 mile S. E. of the town and on the left bank of the Hai river.

Qurnah.—Is situated on the right bank of the Tigris just upstream of its junction with the old Euphrates Channel. Its population is 1,941 of which 1,841 are Shiahhs and 100 Sunnis. There is a well stocked bazaar which has recently been roofed and lit by electricity. The Qurnah water supply is a municipal undertaking and is fed by a 20,000 gallon tank. Unlimited water is also obtainable from the Tigris or Euphrates. Ocean going steamers of a draught varying from 10—15 feet, dependent on the height of the river and the state of the tide, can reach Qurnah at all seasons of the year from Basrah, but actually seldom proceed further north than Ma'qil where all the berthing facilities exist. All river steamers can proceed up the Tigris at all seasons and also up the Euphrates as far as Chabaish, and beyond to upstream of Darrāji provided the channel through the Hammar Lake is sufficiently dredged. The interior waterways of the marshes are, generally speaking, not navigable by any craft except mashufs. Owing to the Basrah-Amārah Railway having been taken up, the Railway bridge now spanning the Euphrates has been partly dismantled and a flying ferry, capable of carrying two Ford vans, or 1 lorry, or 45 men at a time substituted. The double journey takes ten minutes. There is no bridge over the Tigris.

Aerodrome.—A landing ground is situated approximately 1 mile south of the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates Rivers and is approximately 500 yards by 400 yards. The surface is good.

Shatrah, General.—Shatrah is situated mostly on the right bank of the Shatt al Shatrah and 3 miles downstream of the take off of the Bad'ah Channel. Distance by road to Nāsiriyyah is 35 miles. Its population is 5,500, of which 5,160 are Shiahhs, 200 are Persians, 120

are Sunnis, 10 are Jews and 10 are Sabeans. The majority of the houses are of burnt brick. The town is surrounded by a fortified out of repair wall built by us, 8 feet high, with ruined towers at intervals of 400 yards. This enclosed area is divided into two by the Shatt al Shatrah, to admit of camping space within the walls on the left bank. The streets are broad. The town is built 20 yards back from the river. There is only one mosque with a minaret, which commands the whole town. Billeting accommodation for troops is difficult to find, as the old Turkish barracks which were outside the wall to the North have been completely wrecked. There is a serai in the town which would accommodate one company.

Of the Shiah inhabitants almost every man is connected with either the Sinājir or the Albu Shamkhi sections of the Abudah. These two sections are at enmity with each other. They fought it out in 1917, when the Albu Shamkhi were beaten and their houses, in the North part of the town, wrecked; many of these have now (May 1920) been rebuilt.

Khaiyūn al 'Ubaid, the paramount shaikh of the Abudah, is the shaikh of the Al Sinājir section, while Hassan al Jāsīm is shaikh of the Albu Shamkhi. Both these men are trying to get the upper hand in Shatrah. Khaiyūn is at present the holder.

Industries.—The manufacture of copper and tin coffee pots and the tinning of ghi, which is bought in large quantities by Shatrah merchants from the tribesmen for export.

Supplies.—The following supplies, surplus to local requirements, are available.

Rice.—In January 2,000 tons, which gradually diminish as it is exported until September when there is very little left.

Wheat and Barley.—May inclusive to November inclusive, 500 tons of wheat and 2000 tons of barley. As soon as navigation *via* Bad'ah channel is open the whole of this is gradually exported to Basrah and elsewhere.

Idhra.—At the end of October 400 tons available; it is gradually exported till September when there is only very little left.

Mash.—In October there are 20 tons surplus, which also are gradually exported.

Ghi.—Mostly in March, April and May—during which time 500 tins are usually available. There is a further supply but not so large in October and November.

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Transport.—Mules and ponies.—Without giving warning not more than 30 pack mules or ponies could be obtained in Shatrah.

Camels.—There are 100 camels usually, in the vicinity, which are the property of Khaiyūn al 'Ubaid. Up to 2,000 camels could be obtained from the nomadic tribes at any season within 3 or 4 days of notice being given provided they happened to be in the vicinity.

Bellums.—There are 12 bellums, of 3 tons each, always available.

Water Supply.—At Shatrah depends largely upon whether the Bad'ah channel is open or closed by means of a bund. If it is closed then there is water in the Shatt al Shatrah from mid-January to mid-June (when the Bad'ah dam is normally broken). At other times Shatrah has to rely on about 40 wells which are dug in the dry river bed. As many more wells as desired can be dug. Water is found at from 6—12 feet below the surface; one side of each well is dug sloping to admit of access to the water. This well water is always sweet, but the wells require cleaning out frequently as much sand falls in from the top and sides. The wells are unlined. There is one brick well on the left bank, 30 feet in diameter, with water which is slightly brackish. The lift of this well is worked by bullocks. Water is suitable for watering animals. Water is 25 feet below the surface. Many of the houses in the town have their own private wells.

Camping space.—Left Bank.—One battalion with transport inside the wall perimeter. This might be impracticable between January and June as the river bed would contain water and no bridge exists.

Unlimited space outside the perimeter wall.

Right Bank.—There is no good camping ground but there is ample space for any sized force.

Aerodromes.—An emergency landing ground is situated approximately $\frac{1}{2}$ mile south east of the town on the left bank of the Shatt-al-Gharrāf. The surface is of hard sand and the maximum dimensions for landing—500 × 350 yards.

Lines of Approach. (See Chapter VIII.)

From the North (a) By Land for pack only, via either bank of the Gharrāf. A motor road from Kūt to Nāsiriya is under consideration.

(b) By Water.—Usually from mid-January to mid-July the Gharrāf is navigable for stern wheelers from Kūt to the Bad'ah Channel take off (3 miles North of Shatrah). During very high water boats of no to 6 foot draught could negotiate this, but turning for them is difficult in the Bad'ah Channel and impossible in the Shatt-al Shatrah. Motor launches can reach Shatrah from the North when the depth of the Shatt-al Shatrah permits; this is largely dependent on whether the Bad'ah channel is open or closed.

2. *From the South.*—In all seasons Shatrah can be approached by road from Nāsiriyyah. In high flood, when water flows down the Shatrah channel and fills the disused irrigation channels, it would be a simple matter to build bunds and make a passage for transport.

In high flood level, from March 1st to April 15th bellums not drawing more than 2 foot can reach as far as the junction of the Bad'ah and Gharrāf; from there it is necessary to proceed to Shatrah by horse or foot. From April 15th to June 15th boats drawing up to 6 foot can reach the junction and from there bellums drawing up to 3 foot can reach Shatrah. From June 15th to July 31st the approach is the same as from March 1st to April 15th. For the remainder Shatrah can be approached by horse from anywhere. In high water season, however, Shatrah can only be approached from Nāsiriyyah by horse and from Kūt by river, the irrigation channels above Bad'ah being impassable.

3. *From the East.*—By water only *viâ* the Bad'ah Channel. In even the low water season a land route would be impracticable owing to marsh.

4. *From the West.*—There is no suitable line of approach.

History.—According to local history Shatrah was founded about 1872; it grew rapidly owing to the building of bazaars and houses and carried on such a brisk trade with Baghdad and was such an important grain centre that it became the most important town on the Gharrāf and was known as "Little Baghdad." It was first occupied by the Turks in 1881, the local tribes consenting for the time being as they were feeling the oppression of the Sa'dun rule. In 1895 the Turks made an attempt to conscript Shatrah men, with the result that the Al Sinājir section of the Abūdah migrated, inter-tribal troubles began and the decline of Shatrah set in. In 1904 Sa'dūn al Mansūr drove the Turks from the district and at intervals since then Turkish expeditions were sent from Baghdad under Mizar Pāsha, Yūsuf Pāsha, and Muhammad 'Alī respectively to subdue the Shatrah tribesmen, but in each case the remnants of these expeditions returned unsuccessful to Baghdad. Thus Shatrah town and district were unique in Irāq as being the only such from which the Turks never obtained conscripts. The history of Shatrah during the early stages of the war affords a good example of how the Arab throws in his lot with the winning side. After the British captured Basrah the Turkish Kaimakam and his men were evicted from Shatrah. After the fall of Nāsiriyyah and Kūt in 1915 the Shatrah tribes made friendly overtures to the British. On the recapture of Kūt (in the end of 1915 by the Turks), the Turks under Mizar Pāsha returned to Shatrah; the tribesmen, then lent an ear

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to their preachings of a holy war and backed them up, aided thereto by the hope of plunder. After Kūt finally fell into our hands and Baghdad was in British occupation they again turned to us. An Assistant Political Officer was installed in June 1918, since when the tribal situation (to May 1920) was surprisingly quiet.

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Shatrah may be considered to have held the key to the situation in the Muntafiq. In the early days of the insurrection Shatrah was the first place in this area where uneasiness in regard to the British Administration was felt. This was in May 1920 and the outcome of it was the order for the arrest of Khaiyūn al 'Ubaid by the authorities at Baghdad. This was fortunately averted by the Political Officer, Nāsiriya, for Captain Thomas, who was sent to arrest him, wisely made an ally of this, the strongest man in the area, thus laying the foundation of an alliance, which was to carry the Muntafiq over the most critical stage of the insurrection. The fact that Captain Thomas managed to keep Khaiyūn on the side of the British and that between them they held Shatrah for twelve days after Qal'at Sikar fell in all probability saved the Muntafiq and the Lower Euphrates. Three days before the evacuation of Shatrah the Shaikhs of Qal'at Sikar and their following of approximately 200 entered Shatrah under the pretext of making allegiance to Captain Thomas. It was later discovered that their arrival was part of a plot to raise the Gharrāf as a whole and march on Nāsiriya. The plot, however, fell through because Khaiyūn, to whom the tribes were looking to be their leader, expressed the intention of only joining in when Nāsiriya had fallen. Shatrah was evacuated by Captain Thomas on August 23rd.

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This year's situation is entirely different to that of last year, when the tribes were united by a Jihad, i.e. a religious call to offensive action against Government. At the present time there is no unity amongst the tribes but they are all of one mind in their passive resistance to Government's demands for revenue. Their objection is not against paying revenue to either a British or Arab Government but to any Government, unless that Government is able to enforce payment. Though murders and other disorders have ceased to a certain extent at the present the tribes of Shatrah and Qal'at Sikar are by far the most unruly in the Muntafiq and it is doubtful if they can be trusted for very many years.

Present Muntafiq situation caused by change to Arab Government and evacuation of bulk of British troops with nothing to replace them.

The Muntafiq tribes and particularly those of Shatrah and Qal'at Sikar care little or nought what Government is doing them, but on the formation of a new Government they first turn to see what force there is behind it. The tribes have watched with interest the evacua-

tion of the British troops and knowing that the Arab Government has no force of its own are expecting to be able to return to their former state of lawlessness and non-payment of revenue. For this reason they are at present holding back their revenue and watching the action of the Government. In addition they have again armed themselves to a man, because each tribe and individual fears his neighbour if he realises that Government is too weak to protect him against marauders.

Sūq ash Shuyūkh.—Stands on the right bank of the main Euphrates Channel, $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles downstream of where the 'Akaikah Channel takes off. (This Channel is now closed by means of a bund 4 miles down from the main river). Sūq is 17 miles in a direct line South-east of Nāsiriyyah and has a population of 8,830 of which 5,000 live in the town itself and 3,000 in the gardens immediately outside. There is a large Sabeen community of 800 souls all living on the left bank opposite the town. There are 30 Persians. Before 1867, when Nāsiriyyah was built, Sūq was the old Sa'dun capital of the Muntafiq. The town is now divided into two antagonistic factions; the "Hathar," who are Shiah, consisting of two-thirds of the population and the "Naj'ada" who are Sunnis, consisting of the remainder. The situation in this district is the same as in Shatrah, with the exception that in the case of revenue collection these tribes have gone further and actually fired on the collectors. Recent combined operations of fly-boats and aeroplanes have considerably improved the situation in this district. Sūq is a typical Eastern town of many narrow winding streets, usually of brick. There are three Sunni and two Shiah Mosques. The town is circular in plan and situated among date palms. It is surrounded, except on the side of the river frontage, by a wall which was completed in 1919.

Sūq being the "Supply Depôt" for Khamisiyyah is to the latter town what Basrah is to Zubāir, for it sends Khamisiyyah the supplies required by the Bedawin caravans which call in at that "Port." These supplies are sent by donkey except in the Euphrates flood season (mid-April to the end of July) when transport is by bellum or mashuf.

There is camping space for one Company at all seasons within the walls and space for one Brigade at all seasons 2 miles South-West of the town. There is no water available at the latter camping ground.

Aerodrome.—The race course, 2 miles South of Sūq town, affords a suitable landing ground at all seasons.

Land Communications.—With Sūq to:—

(a) *Khamisiyyah.*—(10 miles) August to mid-April. Pack only.

(b) *Nāsiriyyah.*—(25 miles) Pack only.

Water Communications.—With Sūq to:—

(a) Points on the Euphrates either upstream or downstream of it.

(b) *Khamisiyyah*
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(b) *Khamisiyah* by bellum or mashuf from mid-April to the end of July.

A big volume of trade passes in and out of Sūb.

Imports are:—Coffee, tea, sugar, matches, cotton goods and dyes.

Exports are:—

(a) *To Basrah and Nāsiriya*.—Rice, dates, ghi, wool, sheep, and cattle.

(b) *To Khamisiyah*, for the Bedawin tribes:—Coffee, tea, sugar, matches, cotton goods and dates.

The Sūq dates are considered the best in Irāq.

Transport available.—20 donkeys.

50 bellums (from 3—20 tons).

Food and grain.—No surplus stocks of food or grain are maintained in Sūq.

Suwaij.—11 miles South-east of Shatrah on the right bank of the Shatt-al Shatrah. A small tribal market with a population of 500, all of whom are Shiah. The Shatt-al Shatrah contains that Gharrāf water which does not pass down the Bad'ah Channel; it normally runs dry about mid-June and remains so till mid-January. During the dry period water is obtained from wells dug in the river bed. They are from 6—12 feet deep with one side sloping to admit of access. The water is sweet and plentiful. A road fit for Ford cars with difficulty connects it with Shatrah to the North and Nāsiriya to the South. Not more than 25 mules or donkeys could be produced from Suwaij unless previous notice were given.

Zubair.—Is situated 13 miles South-West of Basrah and is one of the "Desert Ports" into which the Bedawin caravans call to replenish their stock of supplies and clothing. Zubair is, therefore, a distributing centre for the trade between the Western desert and Basrah. It owes its continued existence to this fact only. Its population is about 12,000 all of whom are Sunnis. There are no Shiah, Jews or Christians. The question of the status of Zubair has been settled. The High Commissioner informed Shaikh Ibrahim that he could remain in charge of Zubair if he accepted the following arrangements:—

(a) A regular Municipality to be established.

(b) Government Customs post at Zubair.

(c) Revenue dues to be collected at Government rates and credited to Government treasury.

(d) All taxes not specifically ordered by Government but collected by the Shaikh to cease.

(e) Inhabitants of Zubāir to be allowed to enlist in police and levies.

(f) Tapu transactions to be dealt with in the Civil Courts and criminal cases tried in Basrah as formerly.

The Shaikh in reply stated that he could not accept the conditions proposed. He was, therefore, informed by the High Commissioner on June 8th, that he could not be allowed to visit Zubāir except with His Excellency's permission. Otherwise no restrictions would be placed on his movements and he was free to live on his estates in Basrah.

Zubāir henceforward will be, as it was in Turkish times, a Nahiyah directly dependent on Basrah, with an elective Baladiyah collecting the Baladiyah taxes and a Mudir and staff who will collect Government revenues.

With the exception of the produce of a few small gardens, all kinds of supplies required for the inhabitants and for the Bedawin caravans have to be imported. Most of the trade is with Basrah, a little being with Kuwait. The lack of cultivation in the fertile soil around Zubāir is due to the great scarcity of water.

The town used to be surrounded by a wall which has fallen into complete disrepair, and only a portion on the East side now remains. The houses are of brick and, on the whole, are well built. There is practically no sanitation.

Drinking Water.—The water in the wells of the town itself is undrinkable even to Arabs, being extremely brackish. Nearly every house has a well, but its water can only be used for washing. There is one well in the middle of the city from which animals can drink at all seasons.

The drinking water supply comes from Dirhamiyah, 2½ miles South of Zubāir, which is a natural basin for rain water and where some 200 wells exist. It is carried on donkeys in skins, each donkey carrying three skins, which are sold in the city for eight annas the three. The combination of the expense of water for the poorer population and the bad quality of the water at certain seasons causes much sickness among the people. Water is found at Dirhamiyah at a depth of 4 feet below the ground. After the rains have fallen the wells produce sweet water, usually in December; this supply remains sweet till the end of March; from April onwards it becomes more and more brackish till in October and November it is almost undrinkable. The Shaikh of Zubāir obtains his drinking water from a well at Qratyah (10 miles South-west of Zubāir) when the Dirhamiyah water begins to taste brackish.

Transport.—About 600 camels and 200 donkeys are permanently in Zubāir.

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In winter there are thousands of camels in the neighbourhood which belong to the Bedawin tribes; in summer camel caravans come in at irregular intervals to fill up with supplies.

Communications.—Zubāir is connected with the following places, all of which can be reached by Ford car except after heavy rain:—

Basrah, Shaibah, Barjisīyah, Safwan and Umm Qasr.

Camping Grounds.—There is no suitable camping ground at Zubāir owing to the lack of water but there is unlimited camping space at Dirhamiyah.

Trade.—All the trade of the town is done in the market. The requirements for the desert tribes are chiefly rice, dates, barley, coffee, tea, sugar and cloth. These are collected in stores bordering on the open spaces, suitable for loading caravans. The Bedawin tribes either pay cash for their supplies or give in exchange animals, wool or skins.

Rifles.—There are 1,200 Martinis and 800 new Turkish rifles in Zubāir, of the latter 600 belong to Shaikh Ibrahim.

CHAPTER III.

CLIMATE.

1. Physical features.

Were it not for the twin rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates, Iraq would be almost a barren desert. The flood waters of both rivers, in spring, extend the marshes into one great swamp practically covering the triangle Nāsiriya-Amārah-Qurnah. Without a most perfect system of river training the formation of marshes in their lower courses is bound to happen, since the rivers enter the low-lying alluvial plain laden with silt. At different times they have blocked one bed after another, and have spread, at intervals, disastrous floods over the land.

There are, therefore, two main physical features affecting the climate which are found in this area; viz.—The great barren Arabian desert and the fertile alluvial plain irrigated mainly by the Euphrates.

2. Temperatures.

Effect of irrigation and marsh water on temperature.

A good example of the effect of water is afforded by observations at Qurnah, which, after the spring floods, is surrounded by extensive marshes. The effect is to lower the maximum, and raise the minimum temperature during May and June, and to lower both, especially the minimum, during August and September.

The following figures for 1918 illustrate the effect:—

Average maximum temperatures.

Place.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.
Amārah . . .	94	102	110	109	107
Qurnah . . .	92	97	103	105	105

Average minimum temperatures.

Amārah . . .	70	75	79	78	74
Qurnah . . .	75	77	77	72	68

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Annual variation.

The coldest month is January and the hottest is either July or August. Like all other semi-arid regions the range between the highest and lowest temperatures is large. Temperature may be expected to rise to 115 at Basrah most years, while the highest recorded temperature is 128.9 (in July 1921). On the other hand frost is often experienced in the cold weather, the minimum recorded temperature being 23.7° in January.

3. Humidity.

Relative humidity 1918 (means of 08.00 hours and 16.00 hours observations).

Place.	January.	April.	July.	October.
Basrah	71	53	32	45
Muhammarah	71	61	23	44
Nāsiriya	62	56	20	29
Qurnah	74	57	49	38

The presence of marshes in the spring and early hot weather round Qurnah causes a lag in the time of occurrence of the lowest humidity there; in 1918 the minimum there occurred in September while in Basrah it occurred in August.

Average pressure of Aqueous Vapour-Qurnah-1918.

January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
0.30"	0.31"	0.36"	0.44"	0.62"	0.72"	0.79"	0.58"	0.46"	0.43"	0.45"	0.34"

The marshes north of Qurnah provide a plentiful supply of water for the absorption of water vapour by the air during the first half of the hot weather. In spite of the "shamal," therefore, the absolute humidity increases there as the temperature rises. The maximum in

July 1918, was however followed by a rapid fall in humidity as the marshes drained away and left a land in place of a water surface.

Diurnal variation.

The values at Qurnah in June 1918 were 0.64" at 08.00 hours and 0.82" at 16.00 hours, and in July 0.70" morning and 0.88" afternoon.

At Muhammarah during June to September 1917 the diurnal variation was:—

Hours	06.00	08.00	10.00	12.00	14.00	16.00	18.00
Absolute Humidity.	0.58"	0.61"	0.58"	0.54"	0.54"	0.56"	0.57"
Relative Humidity.	58%	43%	30%	24%	22%	23%	31%

Fog.

Average number of foggy days per month.

Place.	Years.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.
Basrah	8	0.6	0.6	1.8	2.1	0.3	0
Qurnah	1	0	1	3	3	0	0

4. Rainfall.

Place.	No. of years.	Annual average rainfall.
Basrah	18	6.68
Muhammarah	6	8.61

The maximum recorded rainfall in the plains is 3.10 inches in 24 hours at Basrah in 1910.

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5. Medical.

As often in this area the habitable portion is restricted to narrow palm belts or scattered places in the Euphrates marshes, it is essential that the strictest sanitary precautions should be taken by troops engaged on operations in the area.

Whenever possible camps should be sited on the desert inland of the palm belt.

Generally speaking the atmosphere in this area is more humid than in other parts of Irāq owing to the vast marsh areas and its proximity to the sea. For this reason heatstroke constantly occurs amongst Europeans during the summer months when they are exposed in the open without adequate protection against the sun.

Epidemic diseases.—The chief epidemic diseases in the area are, Malaria, Plague, Sandfly Fever, Cholera, Small-pox, Dysentery, Relapsing Fever, diseases of the Enteric group and occasionally Typhus.

Malaria.—It is the commonest of these diseases and is most prevalent from June to November when the floods are subsiding. Its fatality is low. The area being so intersected with a network of irrigating canals and there being so much marsh land it is impossible to carry out anti-mosquito measures with any marked measure of success.

For any troops operating in mosquito infected areas such as Qurnah, the following points should be noted :—

- Mosquito nets are indispensable if malaria is to be avoided.
- The compulsory taking of prophylactic quinine between the months of May and November inclusive.
- Glare glasses and spine pads are necessary on account of the additional glare of the water.
- Preparations of complete heatstroke precautions.
- Work suspended between 11.00 hours and 16.00 hours when possible.

Cholera—Has been the cause, in the past, of large epidemics amongst the local population of the area. Troops during the Mesopotamian campaign suffered very little from this disease owing to the care that was taken in the purification of water supplies. Certain cases of Cholera amongst the troops in Basrah in 1917 were definitely traced to unpurified drinking water taken direct from river. With the completion of a piped water supply to the whole of the base area the disease has practically disappeared.

Anti-Cholera inoculation should be carried out at the beginning of the hot weather.

Small-pox.—Is probably always present in the area though epidemics are rare in the towns where the local inhabitants are fully alive to and desire the benefits of vaccination.

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Dysentery and Diarrhœa.—Are common hot weather complaints. Prevention is entirely a matter of good sanitation. The efficient destruction of excreta by burning, protection of excreta in latrines and incinerators from flies, and anti-fly measures which in the main consist in the complete removal and incineration of all refuse from camps, and thorough cleanliness in all cookhouses, latrines, stables, etc., where fly breeding may occur.

Vegetables and fruit should preferably be eaten well-cooked. If eaten uncooked they should neither be unripe nor overripe and should be well washed in Chlorine or Permanganate solution. Stable litter from transport or remount camps may be treated by the biological process and afterwards dried for issue as incinerator fuel, a valuable article in this country where fuel of all kinds is scarce.

Dysentery carriers have been responsible for many outbreaks of the disease among troops in this country and it is important that periodical examinations of the cooks of all units should be made to discover the presence of Dysentery, Enteric or even Cholera carriers among them.

Relapsing Fever is not common amongst the Arab population but often occurs during the winter months amongst recently arrived Persian coolies. Owing to its long-incubation period other coolies in a camp are usually infected before the first case is discovered. The disease is usually very difficult to eradicate after a few cases have occurred.

The disease is carried by the louse and its prevention is a matter of personal cleanliness of all personnel of a unit. Weekly hot baths, and in case of a unit susceptible to this disease, disinfection of clothing by steam or sulphur fumigation, accompanied by a bath in cresol kerosine emulsion is essential every week.

Bilharziasis, is common among the riverain population of the Euphrates, and is peculiar to that river. The great majority of cases prove fatal. It is said to be due to drinking Euphrates water in certain localities.

Enteric group diseases, occur amongst the local population though not to a marked extent. Inoculation and good sanitation made the disease a rarity amongst troops during the latter half of the recent campaign.

Influenza was especially prevalent in 1918 when the disease spread with extraordinary rapidity and to a less extent in 1919 from August to November, both inclusive, and caused a considerable number of deaths. It is frequently accompanied by pneumonic complications.

Medical conditions affecting operations at different seasons.—The summer climate, especially in Basrah, varies from a very hot dry climate when the wind is from the north to a less hot and humid climate when the wind is in the south, the latter being more productive of heatstroke than the former.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٠] [٤٥٢/٦٤]

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STATISTICS.

Averages and Extremes at Basrah, 1900—1918, Lat. 30°25' N, Long. 47° 50' E.

TABLE II.

TABLE I.

Month,	Mean Pressure at 8 A. M.	% Mean.	TEMPERATURE.						Relative Humidity at 8 A. M.	Cloud at 8 A. M. 0=cloud- less-10= completely over- cast.	RAINFALL.		
			Mean Daily extremes.		Mean Monthly extremes.		Absolute extremes.				Amount Days.	"	"
			Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.					
January	30.200	40.8	69.0	43.6	69.6	33.4	80.1	23.7	80	3.9	1.37	5.5	
February	30.139	55.8	65.2	43.2	74.7	37.6	87.3	31.1	76	3.9	1.18	3.7	
March	29.934	64.1	73.7	55.7	83.9	45.0	92.5	39.1	70	3.3	1.18	4.2	
April	29.935	74.0	84.0	64.7	94.5	55.2	108.7	51.0	63	3.1	0.52	2.8	
May	29.852	84.1	94.3	74.2	104.7	64.5	115.3	59.0	56	2.1	0.30	1.5	
June	29.648	90.1	100.6	80.3	109.5	74.6	119.1	68.8	53	0.1	0.00	0.0	
July	29.525	92.5	104.4	81.4	110.9	75.7	122.1	65.7	51	0.3	0.00	0.0	
August	29.569	91.9	104.9	80.1	111.4	74.4	118.3	63.1	51	0.2	0.00	0.0	
September	29.750	85.9	101.3	74.5	108.0	65.2	116.6	45.4	55	0.3	0.09	0.2	
October	29.974	76.7	90.6	65.5	99.5	57.4	105.3	43.6	60	1.5	0.04	0.6	
November	30.098	44.7	77.0	55.4	88.5	43.5	93.8	35.7	68	2.5	0.79	2.9	
December	30.194	53.2	64.0	47.8	74.3	37.9	80.5	29.9	79	3.7	1.19	4.3	
Year.	29.910	71.9	84.9	64.3	94.1	55.7	122.1	33.7	63	2.8	6.68	26	
Number of years, observations.	11	..	...	...	...	18	...	...	...	...	18	...	

% Not reduced to sea-level or to latitude 45°.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٠ ظ] (٤٥٢/٦٥)

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Averages and Extremes at Basrah, 1900—1918, Lat. 30° 25' N, Long. 47° 50' E.

TABLE III.		TABLE IV.									
COMPARISON OF SPRING WITH WINTER RAINFALL.		WIND.									
		Percentage of Observations at 8 A. M. from									
		N.	N.E.	E.	S.E.	S.	S.W.	W.	N.W.	CALM.	
Month.	Basrah.										
January	2.56"	29	1	0	7	18	6	13	14	12	
February	1.70"	22	2	1	4	21	7	14	16	13	
March		20	5	1	9	23	3	9	12	18	
April	1.57	33	4	2	4	18	6	12	12	39	
May		27	2	2	5	10	4	15	16	19	
June		27	1	1	1	4	2	20	42	2	
July		33	1	1	2	5	4	21	28	5	
August		22	2	2	2	7	11	25	23	6	
September		6	5	2	3	2	15	41	13	13	
October		16	3	1	4	10	14	31	10	21	
November		12	2	1	11	14	3	26	17	14	
December		15	2	2	6	12	6	29	19	9	

TABLE VI.

TABLE V.

Averages and Extremes at Mahammarah, 1910—1918, Lat. 33° 23' N, Long. 48° 13' E.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [١٩٣١] [٤٥٢/٦٦]

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TABLE V.
Averages and Extremes at Mahammarah, 1910—1918, Lat. 33° 23' N, Long. 48° 13' E.

TABLE VI.

Month.	TEMPERATURE.						RAINFALL.		
	Mean.	Mean Daily extremes.		Mean Monthly extremes.		Absolute extremes.	Amount.	Days.	Max. in 24 hours.
		Max.	Min.	Max.	Min.				
January	52.6	63.1	43.8	71.7	37.5	75.6	1.17	4.7	0.95
February	57.4	67.0	49.5	74.6	41.4	81.2	1.44	3.4	0.93
March	64.5	74.5	55.7	82.6	47.3	87.4	1.58	4.2	1.05
April	75.0	86.4	64.3	94.0	57.6	109.0	0.43	2.5	0.90
May	84.3	95.6	73.0	103.8	62.8	116.5	0.11	1.2	0.20
June	89.7	101.8	78.3	108.8	73.0	116.8	0.00	0.0	0.00
July	92.5	104.4	80.1	109.2	75.3	119.8	0.00	0.0	0.00
August	92.2	105.0	80.7	111.1	74.8	118.4	0.00	0.0	0.00
September	87.6	101.7	75.4	107.7	69.1	115.3	0.00	0.0	0.00
October	79.5	93.3	68.5	99.8	60.0	100.4	0.10	0.3	0.40
November	67.2	80.6	58.2	89.1	51.8	92.8	1.30	2.0	1.70
December	54.6	65.2	48.4	75.0	39.7	80.0	2.48	5.5	1.60
Year	74.8	86.5	64.8	93.9	59.4	119.8	8.61	24	1.70
Number of Years' Observations	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6	...

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣١ ظ] (٤٥٢/٦٧)

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TABLE VII.

BASRAH.

Mean Maximum Temperature.

Year.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Annual.
1900 .	58.4	63.7	73.9	85.8	93.4	101.1	104.6	104.1	99.8	91.5	72.8	64.2	84.4
1901 .	58.5	68.4	77.2	89.7	96.8	105.5	107.3	105.7	101.1	89.1	76.0	64.6	86.7
1902 .	60.9	69.5	75.3	84.5	97.9	102.3	102.8	106.0	98.7	85.4	75.5	63.1	85.2
1903 .	66.3	62.6	0.9	84.7	97.8	101.8	105.4	109.5	98.2	86.6	73.9	64.9	84.4
1904 .	61.4	67.3	76.0	84.3	96.6	...	104.8	104.6	...	88.1	77.8	...	...
1905 .	59.1	61.5	71.0	86.5	91.2	99.4	100.6	102.7	...	...	...	56.1	...
1906 .	57.6	61.7	69.2	76.4	87.6	95.4	101.5	102.8	98.3	92.6	76.9	67.1	82.3
1907 .	61.4	64.4	72.4	81.1	92.3	97.4	101.1	101.0	99.3	88.9	72.2	65.0	83.0
1908 .	63.7	67.1	75.9	84.4	93.3	100.7	99.9	103.5	101.6	92.1	77.5	64.4	85.3
1909 .	61.6	66.8	80.7	84.3	96.4	97.0	102.8	101.2	98.3	87.7	75.6	64.4	84.7
1910 .	60.1	65.9	66.7	80.2	89.6	96.6	105.0	105.9	100.2	89.3	74.4	58.8	82.7

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٢و] (٤٥٢/٦٨)

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1906 .	57.6	61.7	69.2	76.4	87.6	95.4	101.5	102.8	98.3	92.6	76.9	67.1	82.3
1907 .	61.4	64.4	72.4	81.1	92.3	97.4	101.1	101.0	99.3	88.9	72.2	65.0	88.0
1908 .	63.7	67.1	75.9	84.4	93.3	100.7	99.9	103.5	101.6	92.1	77.5	64.4	85.3
1909 .	61.6	66.8	80.7	84.3	96.4	97.0	102.8	101.2	98.3	87.7	75.6	64.4	84.7
1910 .	60.1	65.9	66.7	80.2	89.6	96.6	105.0	105.9	100.2	89.3	74.4	58.8	82.7
1911 .	50.9	59.3	67.9	77.9	93.1	96.9	103.7	102.9	96.9	90.3	74.1	63.3	81.4
1912 .	56.9	66.0	73.5	81.9	90.4	104.3	105.6	108.1	105.4	94.2	78.3	62.6	85.6
1913 .	57.0	59.8	69.5	85.0	99.1	103.0	104.0	106.5	105.5	93.8	73.3	60.5	84.8
1914 .	64.1	61.5	72.1	82.0	92.8	100.8	101.8	107.0	100.8	...	..	66.6	...
1915 .	...	71.1	81.5	88.1	96.6	104.2	106.3	105.9	104.2	92.7	82.6	67.8	...
1916 .	62.4	67.0	78.0	83.4	...	101.7	106.4	102.6	...	89.7	84.3	70.5	...
1917 .	65.5	69.8	78.2	95.9	98.6	103.8	113.3	109.7	106.1	93.9	84.9	64.0	90.3
1918 .	64.3	66.3	72.7	81.9	94.8	100.6	107.2	105.9	105.4	95.7	79.0	63.6	86.5
1919 .	65.1	67.6	78.6	91.2	98.9	101.5	109.4	112.9	110.3	101.6	83.5	71.3	91.0
1920 .	66.9	65.4	80.1	94.0	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mean	60.6	65.3	74.1	84.5	94.4	100.7	104.4	105.0	101.4	90.7	77.0	64.0	...

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٢ ظ] (٤٥٢/٦٩)

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TABLE VIII.
BASRAH.

Mean minimum Temperature.

YEAR.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Annual.
1900 .	...	...	60.9	69.7	75.5	83.1	84.6	82.4	77.3	71.2	55.0	50.2	...
1901 .	43.6	49.8	61.1	70.3	76.4	84.2	86.3	83.5	79.9	68.4	57.9	49.6	67.6
1902 .	46.6	51.6	59.8	67.0	78.0	83.3	83.7	84.4	76.2	66.7	61.4	50.5	67.4
1903 .	41.9	48.1	54.8	65.2	73.5	78.9	80.3	84.3	74.0	61.6	48.8	46.4	63.2
1904 .	43.7	49.0	55.4	61.5	73.4	...	81.5	79.8	...	64.0	64.8	61.6	...
1905 .	...	...	...	66.1	72.7	82.2	83.0	81.3	...	...	...	43.3	...
1906 .	44.5	51.4	58.5	63.4	75.6	79.7	77.0	75.0	67.7	63.4	56.1	40.1	63.3
1907 .	40.5	45.9	51.5	61.1	71.1	78.2	77.3	74.4	68.7	62.4	50.0	...	...
1908 .	...	43.5	54.5	62.4	72.1	79.8	77.5	77.5	73.0	...	...	...	...
1909 .	42.4	49.5	56.1	62.6	72.4	77.0	83.6	83.6	79.7	70.9	60.7	49.8	65.7
1910 .	40.7	51.0	53.5	65.8	70.3	81.3	84.8	84.5	77.8	68.7	58.0	45.9	66.3

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٣و] (٤٥٢/٧٠)

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1906 .	44'5	51'4	56'5	63'4	75'6	79'7	77'0	75'0	67'7	63'4	56'1	40'1	63'3
1907 .	40'5	45'9	51'3	61'1	71'1	78'2	77'3	74'4	68'7	62'4	50'0	...	...
1908 .	...	43'5	54'5	62'4	72'1	79'8	77'5	77'5	73'0	...	...	...	...
1909 .	42'4	49'5	56'1	62'6	72'4	77'0	83'6	83'6	79'7	70'9	60'7	49'8	65'7
1910 .	46'7	51'9	53'5	65'8	76'3	81'6	84'8	84'5	77'8	68'7	58'0	45'9	66'3
1911 .	36'3	44'4	53'3	63'2	75'2	81'0	84'6	83'7	74'8	69'0	57'0	50'4	64'4
1912 .	44'9	51'5	57'7	66'7	74'5	83'7	83'6	82'6	79'1	71'5	57'6	47'6	66'7
1913 .	46'0	46'7	54'3	67'2	77'2	81'1	61'5	79'3	76'6	69'6	58'7	47'9	65'5
1914 .	48'0	48'1	56'5	64'4	73'7	77'3	77'5	78'6	70'9	...	...	43'6	...
1915 .	...	50'0	56'8	64'9	75'6	84'1	61'6	77'1	73'2	59'7	52'7	40'3	...
1916 .	43'4	44'8	57'7	62'7	...	79'3	80'7	75'6	...	56'8	55'9	46'9	...
1917 .	44'1	48'1	51'1	66'3	72'1	76'5	81'4	79'0	70'9	59'6	52'7	42'2	62'0
1918 .	41'8	46'3	51'8	60'3	72'0	75'6	78'1	76'4	72'9	65'7	56'0	45'9	61'0
1919 .	48'6	46'3	53'3	59'9	65'8	68'5	69'4	76'6	73'9	69'2	48'0	46'9	59'6
1920 .	43'2	40'1	55'3	62'1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Mean .	44'0	48'0	55'6	64'6	74'3	80'4	81'2	80'2	74'5	65'6	56'5	47'7	...

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٣ ظ] (٤٥٢/٧١)

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TABLE IX.
BASRAH.
Rainfall.

Year.	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	Annual Total.
1899-1900	..	..	..	0.54	3.42	0.12	0	0	0.03	0	0	0	6.00
1900-01	0	0.18	0.76	1.24	0	1.94	0.17	0	0	0	0	1.28	5.57
1901-02	0	0	1.01	1.07	0.42	0.20	1.16	0	0	0	0	0	6
1902-03	0.28	3.12	0.87	0.23	1.21	0.75	0.65	0.82	0	0	0	0.46	39
1903-04	0	0	0.81	2.39	0.70	0.40	0.31	1.72	0	0	0	0	6.33
1904-05	0	0	0.62	0.10	1.26	0	0.29	0.66	0	0	0	0	2.83
1905-06	..	..	0.33	2.68	1.35	0.12	0.56	0.63	0	0	0	0	..
1906-07	0	1.61	1.13	0.19	1.94	2.31	0.93	0.27	0	0	0	0	8.38
1907-08	0	0.29	0.30	0.94	0	3.32	0.49	0.25	0	0.06	0	0	5.65
1908-09	0	0.51	0.31	1.30	0.55	0.06	0.68	0.07	0	0	0	0	3.49
1909-10	0.30	0.13	0.47	2.35	0.28	2.75	0	0.59	0	0	0	0	6.57

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1905-06	.	.	.	.	.	.	...	...	0.33	2.68	1.35	0.12	0.56	0.63	0	0	0	0	...
1906-07	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	1.61	1.13	0.19	1.94	2.31	0.93	0.27	0	0	0	0	8.38
1907-08	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	0.29	0.30	0.94	0	3.32	0.49	0.25	0	0.06	0	0	5.65
1908-09	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	0.51	0.31	1.30	0.56	0.06	0.68	0.07	0	0	0	0	3.49
1909-10	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.30	0.13	0.47	2.35	0.28	2.75	0	0.59	0	0	0	0	6.57
1910-11	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	3.16	2.45	1.43	0.43	1.80	1.37	0	0	0	0	0	10.70
1911-12	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	2.03	4.01	1.43	0.27	1.52	0	0	0	0	0	0	9.26
1912-13	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.12	0.12	1.43	2.81	1.00	0.95	0.05	0.33	0	0	0	0	6.48
1913-14	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.09	1.44	4.10	0	2.15	1.25	0.40	0	0	0	0	0	9.43
1914-15	.	.	.	.	.	.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
1915-16	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	0	0.21	3.47	1.93	1.32	1.48	0.01	0	0	0	0	8.45
1916-17	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	0.02	0.14	0.89	0.91	0.01	0.03	0.11	0	0	0	0	2.11
1917-18	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	1	1.42	1.56	3.33	2.45	0.76	0	0	0	0	0	9.55
1918-19	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	2.17	3.55	1.88	1.32	0	0.33	0.38	0	0	0	0	...
1919-20	.	.	.	.	.	.	0	0	1.66	0.22	2.03	0.23	0	...	...	...	...	...	...
Sum.	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.79	14.73	23.85	26.53	22.57	21.2	79.35	5.46	0.03	0.06	0	1.74	...
Mean	.	.	.	.	.	.	0.05	0.87	1.33	1.40	1.19	1.1	80.52	0.30	0.00	0.00	0	0.09	...
Rainy days (4.e., more than .008" of rain)	.	.	.	.	.	.	-2	1.9	2.5	2.6	2.5	2.1	1.5	1.2	...	...	...	...	3

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٤ ظ] (٤٥٢/٧٣)

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TABLE X.
SUMMARY OF TEMPERATURE AND RAINFALL OBSERVATIONS.

	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
Mean Maximum Temperature	108.5	113.0	111.1	104.8	98.2	83.6	64.5
Qurnah	101.5	111.4	110.0	105.0	98.5	83.4	65.2
Nasiriyah	...	115.2	113.6	106.8	94.0	83.8	63.7
Mean Minimum Temperature	77.7	81.3	77.8	70.6	60.8	54.1	44.2
Qurnah	74.0	78.2	74.4	65.4	54.8	48.9	38.4
Nasiriyah	...	81.1	78.4	65.7	57.5	52.5	40.8
Monthly Rainfall Totals	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.81
Nasiriyah	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Qurnah	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Muhammarah	...	...	...	...	...	...	1.93

TABLE XI.
SUMMARY OF TEMPERATURE AND RAINFALL OBSERVATIONS.

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٥] [٤٥٢/٧٤]

TABLE XI.
SUMMARY OF TEMPERATURE AND RAINFALL OBSERVATIONS.

	1918.											
	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
Mean Maximum Temperature.	63.3	66.7	73.2	82.3	99.2	105.8	113.1	110.9	108.2	96.3	77.0	67.2
	Muhammarah											
	Qurnah											
	Nasiriyah											
Mean Minimum Temperature.	44.9	43.1	52.4	60.0	69.4	74.5	79.5	77.8	73.7	65.5	...	...
	Muhammarah											
	Qurnah											
	Nasiriyah											
Monthly Rainfall Totals	0.77	2.86	1.65	1.32	0.22	0	0	0	0	0	1.98	1.87
	Nasiriyah											
	Qurnah											
	Muhammarah											

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٣٥ ظ] (٤٥٢/٧٥)

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TABLE XII.

The following disconnected details are also available :—

At Shatrah—5.5 inches fell in 1919.

3.9 inches fell from 1st January 1920—14th May 1920

infall.

Total of 9.4 for season 1919-1920.

At Sūq ash Shuyūkh.—4.31 inches fell in 1919 (which was below the average).

9.71 inches fell from 28th November 1919—1st May 1920.

8.72 inches fell from 1st January 1920—1st May 1920.

	Total fall for year 1918-19.	Number of rainy days.	Departure from normal.	Maximum fall in 24 hours.
Nāsiriyyah	7.46	28	...	1.05
Q urnah	7.28	33	...	0.98
Basrah	9.63	31	44	1.42
Muhammarah	11.37	25	32	1.40
Fao	8.41	21	...	1.24

Nāsiriyyah.—Total rainfall 1919 was 13.57 inches.

Total rainy days in 1919—25.

1919

January. February. March. April. May. December.

Fao.—2.26 1.08 0.02 0.41 0.2 1.9

Total 5.87 inches.

perature.

Nāsiriyyah.—1919. Absolute Maximum °. 113.4
Lowest daily maximum 53.8
Highest daily minimum 89.0
Absolute minimum 30.5
Daily average maximum 91.0
Daily average minimum 55.5

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CHAPTER IV.

ETHNOGRAPHY.

1. *General*.—Almost the entire population of the area under report is comprised of Arabs; the great majority of these are Shiabs. (For details of religion see column 7 of the Tribal Lists, Appendix A.).

The Arab population conveniently falls into three groups:—

- (1) Nomadic.
- (2) Semi-Nomadic.
- (3) Settled—
 - (a) Rural.
 - (b) Urban.

There are no hard and fast dividing lines between these classes; it is frequent for one type gradually to shade off into another.

Nomadic Arabs.—Such as the Dhafir or the Ajmān. They are pastoral tent dwellers and breed camels, sheep and horses. They are hardy, brave and warlike and are tribally organised. They wander from one grazing ground to another according to season.

Semi-Nomadic Arabs.—Such as the Budūr and the Bani Sa'id. The tendency of nomads to settle down and turn to agriculture has had the result of certain tribes living in the intermediate state between pure nomadism and the condition of wholly settled cultivators.

The process of settlement of a tribe may be easily suspended or broken off owing to such causes as quarrels with neighbouring tribes or a failure in crops. In such cases a tribe may revert to its original nomadic conditions or seek a settling ground elsewhere. The semi-nomadic tribes are usually far more dependent on their live stock than on their crops.

Settled Arabs.—

(a) *Rural*.—The majority of rural settled Arabs have a regular tribal organisation such as that of the Abudah or the Bani 'Asad. There are however many thousands who belong to so mixed a community that tribal ties have become entirely or almost entirely extinct. Such conditions are found in the highly civilised areas and among the date garden population on the banks of the Shatt al Arab downstream of Basrah.

They are either pastoral, agricultural or both.

(b) *Urban Arabs*.—The Arabs who live in towns such as those of Basrah are looked down upon by their rural brethren as being merchants and contemptible generally. Under such conditions men are found living together who belong by origin each to a separate tribe.

—14th May

h was below

ember 1919

ary 1920—

Maximum fall in 24 hours.
1'05
0'98
1'42
1'40
1'24

ecember.

1'9

5'87 inches.

. 113'4

. 53'8

. 81'0

. 30'5

. 910

. 55'5

The result is that the population soon becomes so mixed that no tribal bonds remain.

The sedentary and shepherd tribes of the Muntafiq are for the most part of good Arab stock and can claim descent from the best old blood of Arabia. They have lost caste by settling down and becoming Shiahs and are now despised by the genuine bedouin tribes who will not intermarry with them.

2. Population—

Muntafiq Area (excluding Bani 'Asad) . 323,600

Qurnah falling within the scope of this report including Bani 'Asad . 36,964

Basrah Area on right bank excluding Basrah Municipality and Zubāir—

Basrah Municipality . 40,997

Zubāir . 12,000

455,076

The details of the Muntafiq Division (excluding the Bani 'Asad) are:—

Shiah Arabs . 305,575

Sunni Arabs . 11,150

Sabeans . 3,000

Kurds . 1,931

Persians . 1,300

Jews . 600

Turks . 38

Europeans . 2

Indians . 4

323,600

The details of the three Nahiyahs of the Basrah Division which are included in this area are:—

Abul Khasib . 24,540 { 12,546 Shiahs.

11,909 Sunnis.

Fāo . 8,550 { 85 other religions.

Hartha . 8,425 (of which 530 are Mad'an).

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Of the above 29 per cent. are men, 34 per cent. are women and 37 per cent. are children.

The details of the Basrah Municipality are:—

Basrah City	20,680	Christians	2,057
		Shiahs	25,813
Municipal villages	13,181	Sunnis	6,620
		Jews	6,288
Ashar City	7,136	Others	219
	40,997		40,997

3. *Races*.—The vast majority of the population are Shiah Arabs. The following however are Sunnis:—

- The Sa'dūn Family.
- The Manna' Family.
- The Shamiyah bedouin tribes and others mentioned as Sunnis in the Tribal Lists (Appendix A).
- The population of Zubāir.
- Part of the population of Khamisiyah and some of the townsmen of Nāsiriya and Sūq.

Other races represented in small numbers are:—

Christians, Jews, Sabeans, Kurds, Persians and Turks.

4. *Characteristics*—

(a) *The Shiah Tribesmen* are hospitable, unreliable, excitable and unfaithful: they always wait to see how the wind will blow before committing themselves to any course of action. They cannot, in any way, be said to be fanatical; they take a practical view of life and are ready to adopt new inventions, such as modern ideas in agriculture, if it is proved to them that the new way is an improvement on the old. They are avaricious and will do almost anything for money. They are barbarous in their methods of warfare, and can in no way be relied on to refrain from killing the wounded and mutilating the dead.

(b) *The Sunni Tribesmen* do not vary much in characteristics from the Shiah. The Sa'duns however are more dignified than their tribesmen and more straight forward.

The Jews are not popular amongst the Arabs and are generally looked down upon as the local money makers except in large towns, such as Basrah, when the Jews are an influential community and civilisation has altered original ideas.

The Kurds.—Are not actually Kurds at all but are almost always referred to as such.

In reality they are Lurs from Pusht-i-Kuh, and are mainly found as cultivators on the Gharrāf in such places as Qal'at Sikar and Karrādi.

The Persians.—Are very few in number and are merchants and artisans who have immigrated to this area.

The Sabeans are found in small colonies in different parts of the area. The Head quarters of their sect is at Sūq ash Shuyūkh, where 800 of them live on the left bank of the Euphrates opposite the town. Sabeans are found at each of the following additional localities in this area :—

Nāsiriya, Chabaish, Bani Sa'id, Khas, Al Hasan, Hakkam, Bani Khaīqān, Basrah and Bani Muslim.

They are mentioned in the Quran together with Christians and Jews and are therefore entitled to tolerance in Muslim eyes as possessing a written revelation. This fact has not however prevented the Sabeans from being continually persecuted by the Arabs. Their women have a reputation for beauty and, until our occupation, were constantly raided and carried off. The Sabeans are most useful to the Arabs as gunsmiths and repairers and makers of agricultural instruments especially in the Bani Mālik Division; it is largely for this reason that they have not been exterminated.

The exact nature of their religious belief is not known, but Baptism is one of their principal rites, and frequent ceremonial ablution is enjoined. They invariably live beside running water. They venerate John the Baptist, but consider both Christ and Moses to be false teachers.

They place Paradise in the Pole Star.

Their ceremonies are said to be conducted in Syriac and are closed to strangers; they possess scriptures of their own.

In dress they are indistinguishable from Arabs, but have a peculiar and striking physiognomy. They do not cut their beards. They are neither circumcised nor monogamous. Many of them are boat builders, but the majority are artisans who work in silver and antimony or, as mentioned above, follow the trades of gunsmiths and makers of agricultural instruments. They do not go in for agriculture. They have constant quarrels amongst themselves regarding their priesthood.

5. Relations between Races and Religions—

The Shiāhs and Sunnis, on the whole, get on well together.

The Sabeans neither like or are liked by the Muhammadaus, and used to be oppressed by them before our occupation.

The Kurds and Persians.—Are looked down upon by the Arabs.

Christians and Jews.—On the whole get on well with the Arabs although generally speaking the Arabs despise the Jews.

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The general trend of feeling is rather more anti-Jewish than anti-Christian. In the majority of cases any troubles that arise have their origin in the Moslem side.

6. Languages—

The only language worth consideration is Arabic.

The Lurs talk their own Luri dialect of Kurdish, but mostly know Arabic.

The Persians almost all know Arabic, which is the common language of both the Jews and the Sabeans. The latter, amongst themselves, are said to speak a dialect of Syriac.

The Jews when writing to one another write Arabic but in Hebrew characters.

7. *Dwellings*.—Except for the urban population, who live in houses, the Arab of Mesopotamia here as elsewhere lives either in tents, reed huts, mud hovels or towers, the majority of the last named being fortified. (Their numbers are given in the tribal lists.)

8. *Education*.—Before our occupation the general level of education among the Muhammadans of Mesopotamia was very low. Although the Turkish Government had an educational system, which, on paper, was fairly extensive and quite admirable, actually the pupils were taught to repeat, read and copy the Quran in the elementary schools attached to the mosques, and a few primary Government schools existed in some of the larger towns, where little beyond religious instruction was imparted. The Turkish school buildings were good but their teachers incapable. In 1908 Turkish was replaced by Arabic as the medium of instruction. The most important educational work done up to the time of our occupation in Basrah was that of the American, French and English mission schools, who dealt chiefly with the local Christians, and of the Jewish, Armenian and Chaldean schools all of which still exist. Thus the native Christians and Jews have been considerably better educated for practical purposes, such as business, than the Arabs.

Since our occupation much has been done to improve the situation for the Arab community and schools teaching the Quran, Arabic, mathematics, history, geography and, when possible, English have been opened up for their benefit.

There are many difficulties such as the obtaining of sufficient books and equipment generally; many of the former, and maps, being required to be printed in Arabic. The greatest difficulty of all however is to provide efficient teachers. Owing to these being almost impossible to obtain our efforts have been mainly directed towards securing an improved standard of education in a limited number of schools, rather than opening many schools where owing to incompetent teachers, no practical good would be achieved.

In every school there is a Mullah who teaches the Quran and the tenets of the Muhammadan faith. A few Arab teachers of the old regime have been kept on under the new. The majority of the remainder are young men, often of considerable promise, who have been attracted to a once despised profession; but even so the present supply of teachers is not sufficient for the schools actually in existence.

Schools at the following places have been opened by us—

Basrah, Abul Khasib, Zubāir, Qurnah, Sūq-ash-Shuyūkh, Ashar, Sbatrah and Qal'at Sikar,

and others will be opened as soon as practicable.

The average attendance is between 50 and 100 so that it is obvious that education has, so far, merely begun to scratch the surface.

A Training College for teachers was opened in Basrah in 1918, but it is too early to say whether the material turned out will be of a sufficiently high standard for the work required.

The problem of girls schools is a difficult one, which is at present not dealt with adequately.

Practically no facilities exist for the education of Arab girls. It will not at first be easy to induce them to attend, but it is likely that, in time, the desire for knowledge will overcome their natural prejudices as they see that good and not evil results.

From the better classes of Basrah and the district come constant appeals for girls' schools and improved boys' schools. Many of those who can afford it send their children to India, Syria, France or England for their education owing to the lack of suitable conditions at home.

Professions.—The following are the more important professions of males over 16 in the area in order of priority, excluding the various types of merchants:—Fellahs, Ta'ab (planters), Mallaks, boatmen, (including balumchis and the crews of Baghlahs and Mahailahs who cruise to the Persian Gulf Ports) dealers in reeds and mats, fishermen both sea and fresh water, buffalo breeders, government servants, weavers and coolies.

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CHAPTER V.

RESOURCES.

I.—General.

The area, as a whole, is self-supporting with the exception of the following articles which are imported :—

Manchester piece goods (cotton), tea, sugar and coffee. The Muntafiq area is essentially an agricultural district and is more than self-supporting as regards grain. It has a large annual excess amounting to as much again as the total local requirements. The chief exports therefore are wheat, barley, rice, mash, idhra, simsim, dates and ghi. The Basrah and Qurnah areas cannot grow sufficient grain for their needs and have therefore to be supplied by imports from the Muntafiq.

Dates are the main products of the soil in the Basrah and Qurnah districts, of which there is a large excess over and above local requirements which is exported or available for purchase.

Development.—Both in the towns and in the country the development of trade, commerce, agriculture and the Port (see Appendix D) since our occupation has been great; all classes concerned realise the benefits that accrue and are always ready for yet further advancement.

Agriculture.—The possibilities of the future are considerable, especially as regards agriculture. The nature of the soil is such that by the supply of sufficient water at the required season it is extremely productive. In this connection however there are three difficulties, which require considerations—

- (i) An irrigation scheme to suit the conditions.
- (ii) A sufficient population to cultivate the new area irrigated (See Chapter III, Para. 12.)
- (iii) Transport facilities to carry away the surplus grain for export.

The district of Qal'at Sikar affords a good example, as one having enormous possibilities. The tribesmen so far are without expert irrigation advice; they are however making slow but sure progress by bringing more and more desert under cultivation each year. It is possible that by extending cultivation to the Shatt al 'Ama on the North East and to the Shatt al Khar on the West, Qal' at Sikar would become one of the most important granaries of Iraq.

The difficulties of transport for export in this area are, especially acute. For instance at the close of 1919 there were hundreds of

tons of grain lying stored in khansat Qal'at Sikar and Shatrah, awaiting the Gharrāf flood in order to obtain water borne transport to convey it to Basrah.

The Basrah-Baghdad Railway is not utilised as much as might ordinarily be expected for the transport of surplus grain. The freight charges have been raised to such a point that the cultivators have to fall back on the slower but cheaper method of transportation by water. It is likely that with the advent of more peaceful conditions and an increase in rolling stock, the railway authorities will be able to allot more trucks for this purposes at a considerably reduced figure.

Destructive agents to crops.—Are hail, floods, locusts, caterpillars and a disease which attacks wheat known as "Hamara."

Agricultural instruments.—The Arab if left to himself needs very little apparatus. A plough is necessary for barley and wheat and is of the simplest and roughest description. The surface of the ground is merely scratched, deep ploughing never being undertaken. Where rice is cultivated the fallah must also have a spade for repairing or cutting channels, and a sickle. This practically constitutes all requirements for lands watered by flow.

There is but little doubt that many of those who can afford it will, as soon as they have had a practical demonstration of their merits, employ modern appliances as they become available in the country.

Live stock.—Camels are bred in large numbers mainly by the nomadic tribes of the Shamiyah (e.g. Aslam and Ajmān) and also by the nomads on the west of the Gharrāf (e.g. Raf'ia and Jash'am), and to a lesser extent by those on the east of the Gharrāf (e.g. Al Humaid, al Arab). (See Tribal lists) Buffaloes are bred in large numbers by the Mad'an tribes who live in the marshes of the Euphrates, mainly between Chabaish and Qurnah.

Sheep are bred in the Shamiyah and on both sides of the Gharrāf. The Budur, Zubairiyah, Shurifat, and all the nomads of the Albu Salih all breed sheep and all go into the Shamiyah for grazing after the first rains have begun, usually about December, returning about May.

Horses are bred by the Bedawin tribes of the Shamiyah and by the Bani Rikab and Al Humaid confederations, the former being on the west of the Gharrāf and the latter on the east. Over 2,000 horses from the Gharrāf are sent to India annually.

II.—Industry.

(a) *Labour.*—As a general rule labour in large quantities is difficult to obtain with or without notice, as the rural population is fully employed in agricultural pursuits. Labour is usually most

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readily obtained in localities which are far afield, and therefore where it is least required. A few men at a time are normally easily obtained. The Arab will do almost anything for money; much therefore depends on the price offered.

In the majority of cases, unless a show of force compels, the provision of labour, even if readily available, depends to a large extent on the political attitude and inclinations of the Shaikh who control it.

Basrah District.—In the whole area between Nahr Umr and Fāo on the right bank of the Shatt-al-Arab probably not more than 2,500 coolies could be engaged unless labour control were again started. The majority of these would be obtained from the cities of Basrah and Ashar. The following figures serve to show the shortage of available labour outside the towns. During the war, when there was an efficient system of labour control the Municipal Area of Basrah (see Map A) produced 11,000 men, women and children for regular daily labour while the district sent 3,000.

(In normal times there are always about 700 Kurds working as coolies in the Basrah and Ashar bazaars.)

Qurnah District.—In the vicinity of Qurnah town labour is difficult to obtain.

In the outlying districts the demand is less and considerable numbers would offer themselves willingly. Length of noticed required by the Shaikh would depend on the numbers desired.

Sūq ash Shuyūkh District.—Is the most densely populated in the whole area. The Shaikhs are always willing to provide labour at Annas 12 per day, and hands can be obtained readily.

Shatrah and Qal'at Sikar Districts.—These are far afield for normal labour requirements. For local work, however, in peace time and if our relations are not over-strained, 2,000 willing workers from each district could easily be obtained at any time of the year.

Nāsiriya.—100 coolies are available at all times of the year. Parties of 1,000 could be obtained with difficulty. Due notice to the controlling Shaikhs would be necessary.

(b) Agriculture.

The *Muntafiq* is the grain producing area,

Qurnah and Basrah are the date producing areas. (See Appendix E.)

The following table for 1919 serves as an indication as to grain production.

(For the details regarding and the localities for Saifi and Shitwi crops see Chapter II.)

"تقرير عسكري عن العراق (المنطقة ٦ أسفل الفرات)" [٤٠ ظ] (٤٥٢/٨٥)

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GROSS YIELD IN TONS OF SHITWI AND SAIFI CROPS EXCLUDING DATES.

Mamafiq area 1919.

	RICE.				Dukhum Tons.	Idhra Tons.	Barley Tons.	Wheat Tons.	Remarks.
	Shitwi Tons.	Red. Tons.	ns. To	Mash. Tons.					
Qa'at Sikar	34	59	...	236	395	8,992	3,375	...	* Normally a much heavier crop. In 1919 much was destroyed by floods.
Shatrah	...	...	6,152	144	2,571	4,061	726	...	† Entirely destroyed by cater- pillars before harvest.
Nasriyah	454	...	...	130	1,769	2,344	2,555	...	
Saq ash Shuyukh	...	...	12,955	100+	1,305	1,005*	865*	...	
Total	488	59	19,107	610	6,040	17,392	7,521	...	

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Fruit and vegetables.—The land below date trees in the date gardens is almost always planted with fruit, vegetables or cereals. In order to promote such cultivation and to take advantage of the irrigated land lying fallow, the owners of date gardens which could be and are not so cultivated have to pay a higher rate of revenue. In the Abul Khasib Nahiyah for instance grapes, pomegranates, oranges, peaches and figs are grown successfully in date plantations beneath the trees, and vegetables of all kinds are also so grown.

Melons.—Ripen by the end of June and are over by the end of July. A second crop is ripe by early September. They are prolific and grow throughout the area. There are extensive melon beds at Barjisīyah, near Zubāir, and in the Qurnah district.

Vegetables.—Of all kinds except potatoes thrive in Mesopotamia. The inhabitants have irrigated patches in which they grow vegetables throughout the area.

Near large towns or military stations special arrangements have been made for the provision and maintenance of vegetable gardens to supply the local demand.

(c) *Minerals*, except salt, are non-existent in the area.

Salt.—Khamisīyah. Salt pans are worked in the summer and autumn to the south of the town. Work ceases in the rainy season. These consist of a number of wells which are scooped out, the water from which is ladled out by women into channels which flow into beds. After 24 hours the water evaporates and leaves a thick white sediment of salt. Each well is said to produce twenty maunds of salt a year.

Madīnah. Salt pans exist 3 miles south of Madīnah and also at 6 miles north-west by north of Qurnah. In both cases the output is insignificant and is not taxed. The salt is of poor quality and most of it is consumed locally; a small proportion is exported to Amārah in its unrefined state.

Chabashīyah. The salt pans here are worked by certain tribes of the Madīnah.

Handān is in the Abul Khasib Nahiyah where salt is collected off the ground in December and January in a fairly pure condition. It is said to be washed out of the soil by rain.

(d) *Manufactures.*—Beyond the manufacture of mats from the reeds which are so prolific in the marshes, there are no outstanding manufactures in the area.

21
610
59
19,107
488
6,040
17,392
7,531
Total

The more important ones are classified as under :—

Abas.—These are made of wool and are manufactured at Qurnah, Shatrah and Sūq. This is a thriving trade especially at Sūq where the weaving is done by men. Lengths of cloth are exported from here to Kuwait and Khamisiyah for disposal to the desert tribes.

Boat Building.—This is carried out to some extent on the banks of the Shatt-al-Arab, but the most famous boat builders in the country are the Sabeans. They build all types of river craft from Mahailahs down to small mashūfs. Hawair has a great reputation as a boat building locality followed closely by Khās, both on the Euphrates between Madinah and Qurnah.

Bricks.—Are made in numerous places. The largest production coming from the Hartha Nahiyah, from the vicinity of Qarmat 'Ali.

There are 25 kilns, employing 250 men. 30—40,000 bricks per kiln are turned out in an eight days shift. The kilns vary in size. Some Arabs have been instructed in the production of bricks similar to English ones; these are now being turned out successfully.

There are kilns also at Nāsiriyyah, Shatrah, Qal'at Sikar, Suwajj, Karrādi and Sūq.

Coffee Pots.—Are made at Shatrah and Basrah.

Ghi is tinned at Shatrah.

Reeds and Mats.—The manufacture of mats, baskets and other articles from the marsh reeds, in this area is mostly carried out by the Bani 'Asad and Madinah tribesmen, whose marshy habitats (east of the Hammar Lake) are eminently suited to the industry.

Reeds are of three kinds; "chaulan", "bardi" and "qassab". All are good cattle food when the plants are young and tender.

Chaulan is used for the manufacture of soft mats known as "Bassir".

Qassab.—Is used for coarse mats called "bawari".

Bardi and Qassab make good fuel and are much used in brick kilns. Out of the above reed mats the Arabs build their mat huts, known as "Sarīfas".

Reeds and mats are collected on the rivers, formed into rafts ("garah") and floated down to their destination.

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III. Transport.

(e) Boat transport available (excluding Basrah Municipality)
Qurnah district.

	Mahailahs. (various).	Bellums. (various).	Mashūfs.
Dair	117	3	14
Sharish	296	6	20
Bani Mansūr	460	80	60
Madinah	360	40	1,800
Arrādi as Sa'ad	250	30	65

Hartha Nahīyah.—

Mahailahs (various) 20. }
Bellums (various) 30. } Normally used for carrying bricks.

Abul Khasīb Nahīyah.—

Medium sized bellums. 90 (2 to 10 taghars).

Small bellums. 150 (1 taghar).

There are no baghalas or mahailahs except in the date season and then they are all chartered.

Fāo Nahīyah.—

Baghalas (150 taghars) 15.

Mahailahs (up to 50 taghars) 50.

Bellums (2 to 15 taghars) 50.

Bellums (1 taghar) 100.

Transport available in Basrah Municipality.—

Motor cars (taxis) 202.

Arabanas 103.

Bellums 1317.

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IV. Commerce.

(1) Character of trade. *Import.*

- (a) For consumption within the boundaries of occupied territories.
- (b) In transit to Persia.

65 per cent. of the total import trade is in transit to Persia. Customs duty on sea import trade is payable at either Basrah or Baghdad the latter only in respect of goods consigned on through Bills of Lading.

Export.—

- (a) From the country.
- (b) In transit from Persia.

Duty payment is optional at Baghdad or Basrah in the case of produce of the country. Transit trade for overseas export pays duty on importation into the country. Trade valuations of (a) and (b) are about equal.

(2) Organisation to promote trade.

A British Chamber of Commerce has been established. The formation of a Trades Association is talked of to further the interests of traders not exclusively British.

(3) *Exports.*

Principal items.—

- (a) From the country, dates, wool, hides and skins and galls.
- (b) In transit from Persia, carpets, opium, oakgalls, gums and intestines.

(4) *Imports.*

Principal items.

For the country, Manchester piece goods (cotton), sugar, coffee, tea, irrigation plants, metal, motor vehicles, oil (kerosine and lubricating).

In transit to Persia, Manchester piece goods (cotton), tea, and sugar.

(5) *Customs and Tariffs.*

General import tariff is 11 per cent. *ad valorem*. Duty on wines and spirits, cigarettes, tobacco and other articles are levied at fixed tariff rates.

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General export duty one per cent. *ad valorem*.

The transit duty is one per cent. and is collected by charging eleven per cent. on all goods entering the country. Ten per cent. of this is refunded by the Customs House in Baghdad on proof that the goods have been actually sent into Persia.

(6) *Taxation.*

Taxation for the purposes of general revenue and also municipal taxes varies according to locality and conditions.

The main items going towards general revenues are :—

(1) *Tax on crops.*—In the Muntafiq, which is the grain producing area, the undermentioned system has been adopted as a temporary measure.

(a) For privately owned land, where the landlord and tenant cannot agree as to terms; of the gross product 50 per cent. goes to the fellah, 20 per cent. goes to Government as revenue, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the Mallak (landlord) as rent and $22\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. goes to the Shaikh or Sarkal.

(b) For privately owned land, where the landlord and tenant are agreed as to terms. The fellah must get 50 per cent. and the Government must get 20 per cent. of the gross product. The balance is split up according to the agreement, and is enforced by us unless grossly unfair.

(c) On "Miri" lands where no private ownership is claimed the distribution of the gross product is :—50 per cent. to the fellah, 20 per cent. to Government as revenue plus $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to Government as the rent due to the landlord, and $22\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. to the Shaikh or Sarkal.

In (a), (b) and (c) above, if the land is watered by "lift" Government only collects 10 per cent. as revenue.

(d) *Vegetable and fruit tax.*—This tax is collected by estimation; fruit pays $\frac{1}{3}$ th whereas vegetables pay Rs. 10 per Jarib = $\frac{2}{3}$ acre.

(e) *Tax on date gardens.*—This is normally 20 per cent. of the crops. In the Muntafiq area date trees are 'axed at $2\frac{1}{2}$ annas per annum per tree if the land under the tree is cultivated, and double that amount if it is not. This arrangement encourages the cultivation of fruit trees, grapes, vegetables and crops beneath the trees, which process improves the quality of the date palms.

(f) *Kodah.*—Usually annas 8 per head per year on each mature sheep or goat and Re. 1 per head on each mature buffalo or camel. Horses, mules, cows and donkeys are exempt.

(g) *Tax on reeds and mats.*—20 per cent. *ad valorem*.

(h) *Tax on boats*.—Minimum is Rs. 10 per annum for a ballum. For every ton of carrying capacity over 10 tons an extra rupee a year. Mashufs are not taxed.

(i) *Tax on fishing*.—The fish tax in various localities is "farned" out to the highest bidder. The usual term is for one year.

(j) *License fees*.—Shooting licenses, liquor licenses, fishing licenses and licenses for sale of tobacco, opium, etc., vary according to subject.

MUNICIPAL TAXATION.

1. House Tax.

Rate 10 per cent. on assessed annual rental value.

NOTE.—This is a tax on all houses and shops. No special shop tax is now taken.

2. Building Tax.

	Rs. A.
Building of a complete house of 4 rooms	10 0
Under 4 rooms	5 0
Building of a shop	3 0
On each brick kiln, if not in use during the period of the year that bricks can be made and burnt	20 0 per mensem.
On each brick kiln, if in use	5 0 „ „

3. Slaughter house tax.

Cows	1 8 per head.
Buffaloes	2 4 „ „
Sheep	0 8 „ „
Calves, etc.	Half above rates.

NOTE.—Farmed Quarterly.

4. Licences.

(a) *Entertainment*.—Theatre and cinema from Rs. 180 to Rs. 250 per mensem.

(b) *Hawkers tax*—sliding scale.

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Half above
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, 180 to Rs. 250

(c) *Ferry*—passengers $\frac{1}{2}$ anna, with loads $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas.

(d) *Landing tax*—sliding scale for various articles.

(e) *Noxious trades tax*—sliding scale from Rs. 5 to Rs. 33 per mensem.

(f) *Farms*.—Such trades as opium vendors, ferries, salt trade, Kodah, etc., are sometimes farmed out to the highest bidder, when detailed arrangements for the collection of the tax, are, owing to local conditions, inconvenient. The purchasing price is paid to Government and the buyer takes all subsequent profits.

(g) *Vehicles*.—Such as taxis and arabanas (sliding scale).

CHAPTER VI.

Tribal.

General.—Almost all types of tribal conditions are represented in the area included in this report.

1. *The settled Tribal area.*—Is inhabited by the Muntafiq and the Ahl Jizair confederations.

2. *The nomadic Tribal areas.*—In which all are included certain wandering tribes to the West and East of the Gharrāf and the Badawin tribes in the Shamiyah, to the South of the Basrah-Darrāji Railway who wander into our administrative area.

3. *The semi-tribal area.*—Around Qurnah and in the vast marsh area North-West, West and South-West of it.

4. *The non-tribal area.*—From the vicinity of Qurnah down to Fāo. (See Tribal Chart.)

1. *The settled Tribal area.*—Tribes are administered through their own Shaikhs. The Shaikhship normally passes from father to son or at least remaining in the family, unless our administration have any special reason for making a change.

(a) *The Muntafiq.*—Is not a "Tribe" but a large loose confederation of Arab tribes.

With a few exceptions, which are noted in the tribal lists the constituents of the Muntafiq are Shiahs by religion. The Sa'dūn, who are the ruling family and the Shaikhs of the Muntafiq, are Sunnis (for the history of the Sa'dūn family see Chapter I).

The tribesmen are either settled cultivators (Hadhr) or shepherds (Shawiyah). These latter use the donkey as a means of transport in place of the camel used by the Badawin.

The Muntafiq fall into three main divisions:—

The Ajwad

The Bani Mālik (pronounced Mālich)

The Bani Sa'id

Of these the Ajwad is the most warlike but has the least cohesion.

The Bāni Malik have also but little cohesion and are divided into two main confederations known as the Mujarraḥ and the Bani Khaiqān.

The Bani Sa'id are the most compact and the nearest to a real tribe.

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In case of a gathering of all the Muntafiq, like the tribal concentration at Shaibah against us in 1915, the various tribes group themselves into their respective divisions. Normally, however, these three main Divisions are merely nominal.

(b) *The Ahl Jizair*.—Is a confederation of settled tribes, some of whom are Muntafiq and others are not. Its location is around the Hammar lake.

It is probable that at one time the whole of the Ahl Jizair was Muntafiq, for local tradition places it Bani Mālik by origin; presumably it was only when the links which bound the Muntafiq together weakened with the waning authority of the Sa'dūn that the sections east of Chabaish detached themselves.

The tribes composing the Ahl Jizair are:—

	Bani Asad.
	Al Husaini.
Muntafiq . . .	Bani Hutait.
	'Ibadah.
	Bani Musharraf.
Non-Muntafiq . . .	Bani Mansūr.

2. *The nomadic Tribal areas*.—The nomadic tribes do not go in for agriculture, but are pastoral tent dwellers, breeding either camels or sheep, and donkeys from which they obtain their livelihood.

They are tribally organised.

Those tribes in the Shamiyah are dependent to a very great extent for supplies of what they eat, drink and wear on the "Desert Ports" such as Zubāir and Khamisiyah. The closing of these "Ports" to an insubordinate tribe is a most efficient way of punishing it and bringing suitable pressure to bear.

Most of the nomadic tribes have fixed grazing grounds according to season, for their camels or sheep. Their settling places are determined by the amount of suitable grazing available, by the amount of water in the locality and by the conditions for security.

As a general rule every nomadic tribe is at feud with one or more of the other nomadic tribes and most of these feuds are of long standing. Similarly also, they have their alliances and help each other in war.

Raiding.—Raiding is looked upon as a pastime by the Badawin. We have attempted to reduce it by means of cutting down tribal allowances and so forth, but with little result, our interferences with their national sport being resented by the tribesmen. In almost all cases raids are inter-tribal and actually affects us in no direct way whatsoever.

The cause of raiding is usually a blood feud of long standing. The rules of the game are as follows, and it is quite the exception to find they are broken:—

- (a) The victors cease to fight as soon as the vanquished surrender.
- (b) The victors have the right to carry off all camels, live stock, arms and any loot they require.
- (c) The vanquished are then allowed to go free—no enemy are slain after surrender nor any prisoners taken.
- (d) All arms, animals or loot brought away by a successful raiding party are considered fair game by any neutral tribe through whose territory the successful raiding party may happen to be returning.
- (e) Unless they "Stand and deliver" all, or a portion as required, they are liable to be attacked.

This difficulty is usually overcome by the raiding party taking one or two men of the neutral tribe with them both on the outward and homeward journey. These men do not however completely guarantee a safe passage in every case. This rule has on several occasions been known to have been broken when the temptation was strong.

3. *The semi-tribal area.*—This is the connecting link between the tribal areas, under Shaikhs and the non-tribal areas under the Mudirs of Nahiyahs, installed by our civil administration, continued by the provisional Arab Government.

Madinah, for instance, is not a tribe but a Nahiyah, it however is under a Shaikh and not a Mudir. Sharish is similarly situated and the Shaikh there does the work of a Mudir.

Dair is the most northerly Nahiyah that has a Mudir and not a Shaikh. Until 1916 there had always been a Shaikh of Dair but owing to constant strife we removed the contending parties and appointed a Mudir instead.

4. *The non-Tribal area.*—May be said to be from Dair southwards to Fao. This is the great date garden district and is inhabited by a population which has become so mixed on account of settlers from the North and from districts on the left bank of the Shatt-al-Arab having migrated thereto, that tribal conditions are often non-existent. There is no large tribal organisation; in many cases there are small communities of tribesmen who, to some extent, keep up their tribal connection, but those tribal ties are gradually becoming more and more loose.

Armed forces.

The Muntafiq, the Ahl Jazair and the Bedawin tribes are well and suitably armed and equipped for the areas and conditions in which they live.

The population of the semi-tribal and non-tribal areas also possess arms, but their rifles are far fewer in proportion and the number of modern magazine rifles is very low. They, however, have sufficient for their own protection and for the repulse of any raids that may be made

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from the west of their date gardens. Details regarding the armed men available for turning out in war and also the approximate number and class of rifles with each tribe is shown in detail in the tribal lists.

The Muntafiq are a warlike people, probably the best armed and the most turbulent in Irāq. They possess some 30,000 modern rifles and about half that number of old but serviceable weapons of the Martini type. They are also great breeders of horses. A large proportion of them can therefore be mounted in battle, which renders them mobile in addition to their rifle power.

In the Muntafiq there is much jealousy between the various tribes, and often between the various sections in a tribe. It is therefore unlikely that the whole confederation would combine at any one time, provided that reasonably good diplomacy were exercised.

The Ahl Jizair have not as great a proportion of modern rifles as the Muntafiq tribes—the majority of their weapons being Martinis. This arrangement suits their conditions well as, for the most part, they live in absolute marsh, where, when fighting occurs, it takes place amongst dense reeds, the combatants being in mashufs. All shooting is done at close range when a large bore bullet is very effective against both man and boat. They however lose the advantage of magazine fire.

Salim al Khaiyūn (Shaikh of the Bani' Ashad), has a considerable influence over the tribes of the Ahl Jizair.

The Badawin tribes are well armed, and must be so for their own self-preservation as they are constantly at feud with one another. They give us very little trouble as almost all the fighting they do is inter-tribal and outside the area of our occupation.

Possible centres of disturbance.

The most likely centres for possible disturbance are:—

1. *Shatrah* for the Gharrāf tribes.
2. *Sūq ash Shuyūkh* for the Majarraḥ and Bani Khaiqān.
3. *Chabaish* for the Bani Sa'id.

1. *Shatrah* is in the Abūdah territory—The Abudāh being a strong and turbulent tribe, with a Shaikh-Khaiyūn al 'Ubaid—who is a good military leader, a brave fighter, and an astute diplomatist with far-reaching influence on the Gharrāf. It was very largely due to his weight in the scale that the Muntafiq tribes took no active part in the 1920 insurrection. In May 1920 all the Gharrāf tribes were quiet. This was undoubtedly due to the fact that they were contented and prosperous as a result of enjoying the security of person and goods guaranteed them by British administration backed by adequate force. It must be remembered that such a state, especially if prolonged, is foreign to the warlike nature of the Gharrāf tribesmen

and even if they adapt themselves to new conditions an outbreak on a large scale is always possible in this area. The Gharrāf tribes are powerful, well fed, well armed with modern rifles and well mounted, while they are far from the reach of troops. Their past record shows them to be good fighters; for instance, in 1904 they fought and defeated 17 battalions of Turkish (Arab) troops which had been ordered from Baghdad by the Turks to subdue them, and again, in the early part of the Mesopotamian campaign they did well against British troops at Butniyah. For the present Muntafiq situation see Chapter I last pages.

2. *Sūq ash Shuyūkh* in Turkish times was always a storm centre. Both the Mijarra and the Bani Khaiqan are well armed. The former were always more anti-British than the latter and are still probably the same at heart.

3. *Chabaish*. Is situated in the Bani 'Asad country which is ruled by the influential Shaikh Salim al Khaiyun. He commands a large following outside in addition to his own tribe, mainly from the tribes of the Ahl Jizair and from Madinah.

He was strongly pro-Turk, and was therefore sent to India for the duration of the war. He is now back as Shaikh and is by way of being a sincere friend of the Government. He is however, capable of raising a revolt on a considerable scale should he deem it wise to do so.

Military considerations.

The line of action taken by certain tribes, if hostile to us, would probably be as under:—

The Dhafir would cut the Basrah—Nasiriyah railway line for the protection of which they are at present paid a monthly subsidy of Rs. 1,500 a month. The Budur, Jawarin, Ghazzi, and Shurifat might do the same.

The Dhafir would be difficult to punish as they are a desert tribe with no settled abode needing very rapid intelligence to render air action effective. They are dependent however for their stores and food supplies on the "Desert Ports" of Zubāir, Nasiriyah, Khamisiyah or Samawah.

The closing of these together with Nazaf and Karbala would eventually bring the Dhafir to heel.

The Ghazzi, Jawarin, etc., have cultivation and are therefore vulnerable to punitive measures.

The action that would probably be taken by the Hassinat, Azairij and the al Ibrahim would be to attack Nasiriyah. The Ghazzi and Budur might assist them. These tribes would be most suitably and easily punished by the destruction of their villages by aeroplanes. Their herds could also have heavy loss inflicted on them by air action.

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The Gharrāf tribes would probably overpower Government officials in Shatrah and Qal' at Sikar and then advance against Nasiriyah, which any one of the before mentioned tribes could capture with ease. Should air action fail it must be remembered that punitive measures against the Gharrāf tribes by land forces are a serious undertaking and would involve military operations on a large scale on account of the strong opposition that would be met and the difficulties of a long vulnerable and bad line of communication. When the Shatt al Gharrāf is high much damage could be done by gun fire from gun boats breaking down the marginal bands, so flooding the land and destroying the crops.

Many of their towers and villages are within easy gun range of the river and could be effectively damaged by fire from gunboats, as well as by bombing.

The Bani Sa'id are unlikely to take action against us. They were unrepresented at the battle of Shaibah when nearly all the tribes of Iraq were out against us. The Bani Sa'id country is most inaccessible; punitive measures against them, except by air, would, therefore, be difficult.

The probable action taken by the Mugarrah and the Bani Khaiqan would be to attack Sūq ash Shuyūkh and stop river traffic between Basrah and Nasiriyah. A strong punitive air action may be effective in bringing them to heel but they present difficult targets.

The Bani' Asad, in the vicinity of Chabaish would also stop the river traffic on the main channel between Basrah and Nasiriyah. It would be a difficult problem to punish them severely as they can take refuge so easily in the marshes, the minor waterways of which leading through the dense reeds, being known only to themselves. The town of Chabaish is the vulnerable point.

The employment of aeroplanes for bombing and machine gunning, especially when working in co-operation with troops and gunboats, has an excellent effect when it is required to bring a refractory shaikh to his senses. As an example, at the close of 1918 Badr al Rumaiyidh still refused to tender his submission to us, and no revenue was collected from the Albu Salih tribal territory. Early in 1919-20 gunboats, 4 aeroplanes and 150 mounted levies were detailed to attack his camp. Badr was driven out of his headquarters at Fathi, on the Bad'ah and took refuge in an inaccessible position in the Amarah marshes. We installed a new Shaikh, Badr then attacked the "usurper" and in May 1919 a larger mixed force of gunboats, aeroplanes and mounted and dismounted men was sent against him. Badr was driven out of Albu Salih country and his crops were burnt. The following month he started negotiations which resulted in his submission and unconditional acceptance of our terms.

In the Basrah and Qurnah districts the possibility of a rising on a large scale against us is very remote. The people appreciate the

benefits of settled rule and are prosperous and contented. They are ill armed and being without cohesion have little to gain and much to lose by any such misguided action.

Until the time comes in the future when a solution of the extremely difficult problem of disarming the tribes is arrived at, the Government will always have to be prepared, in the Muntafiq area perhaps more than elsewhere, to back up their policy by force when necessary, or be content at times with the mere form of Government.

Policy.

The Turkish system of tribal administration was based on the principle of preventing cohesion among the sections of a tribe and of dividing them up.

British administration policy was based on directly opposite lines.

From the outset it was held that the surest way of securing peace was by restoring the power of the Shaikhs.

This policy obtains the active support of the Shaikh himself to whose interest it is to support a Government which is prepared to support him.

This is satisfactory when adequate military is in reserve. The insurrection of 1920 followed by the drastic reduction of the British garrison and transition to Arab rule produced a reaction, leading to a multiplication of small Shaikhs with small followings and tendencies towards independence of action. While diminishing the chances of combined action without serious cause, this condition increases lawlessness and minor instances of resistance to Government orders.

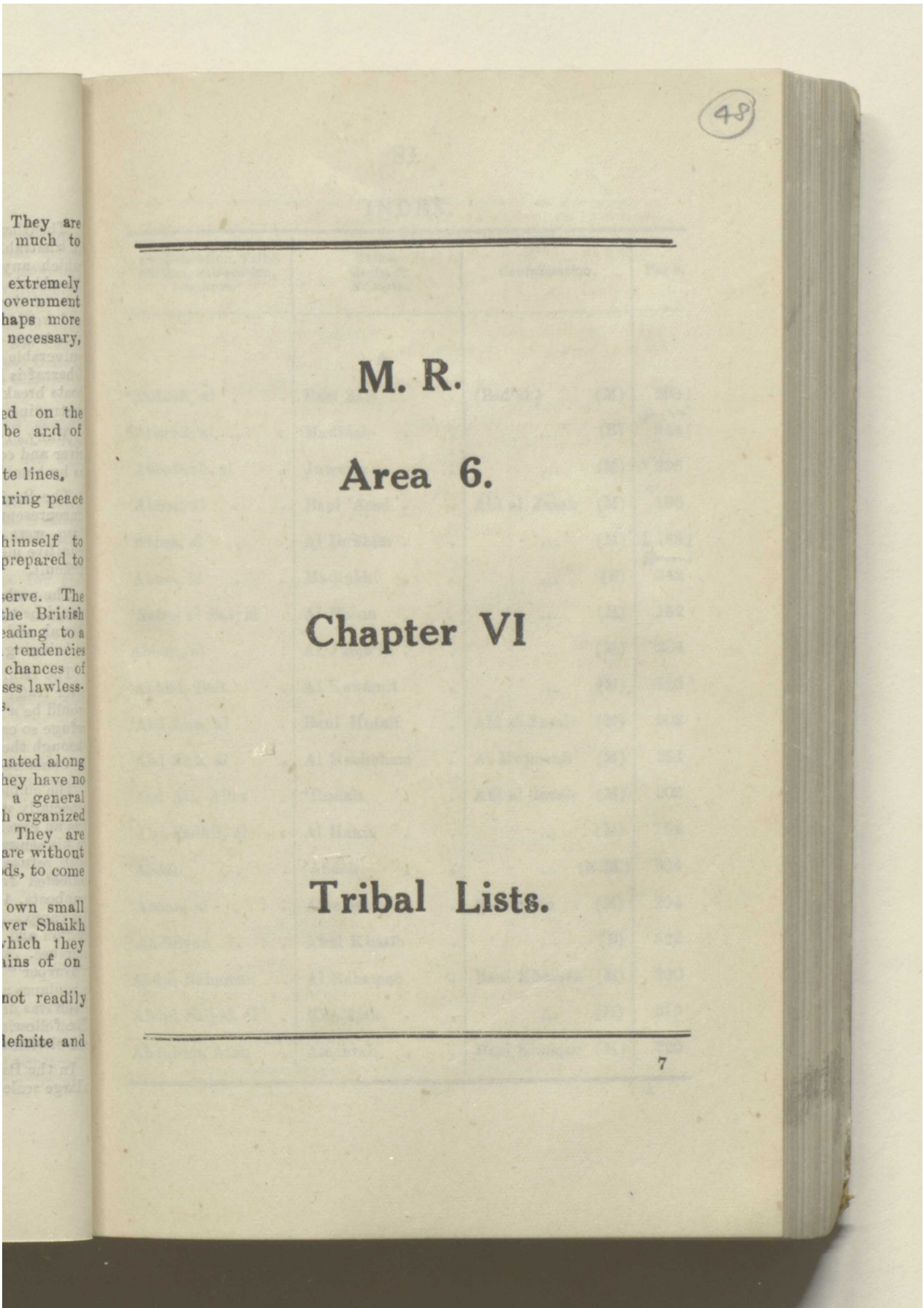
Note on the Mad'an.

The settled districts of the vast marsh area which are situated along the river and canal banks run back into the marshes where they have no definite limits. The marshes are inhabited by "Mad'an," a general term, which includes all those marsh dwellers who, although organized tribally in a small way, have no cohesion on a large scale. They are fishermen, reed gatherers and breeders of buffaloes. They are without fixed habitation and are accustomed, with the subsiding floods, to come down to the pasturages near the rivers and canals.

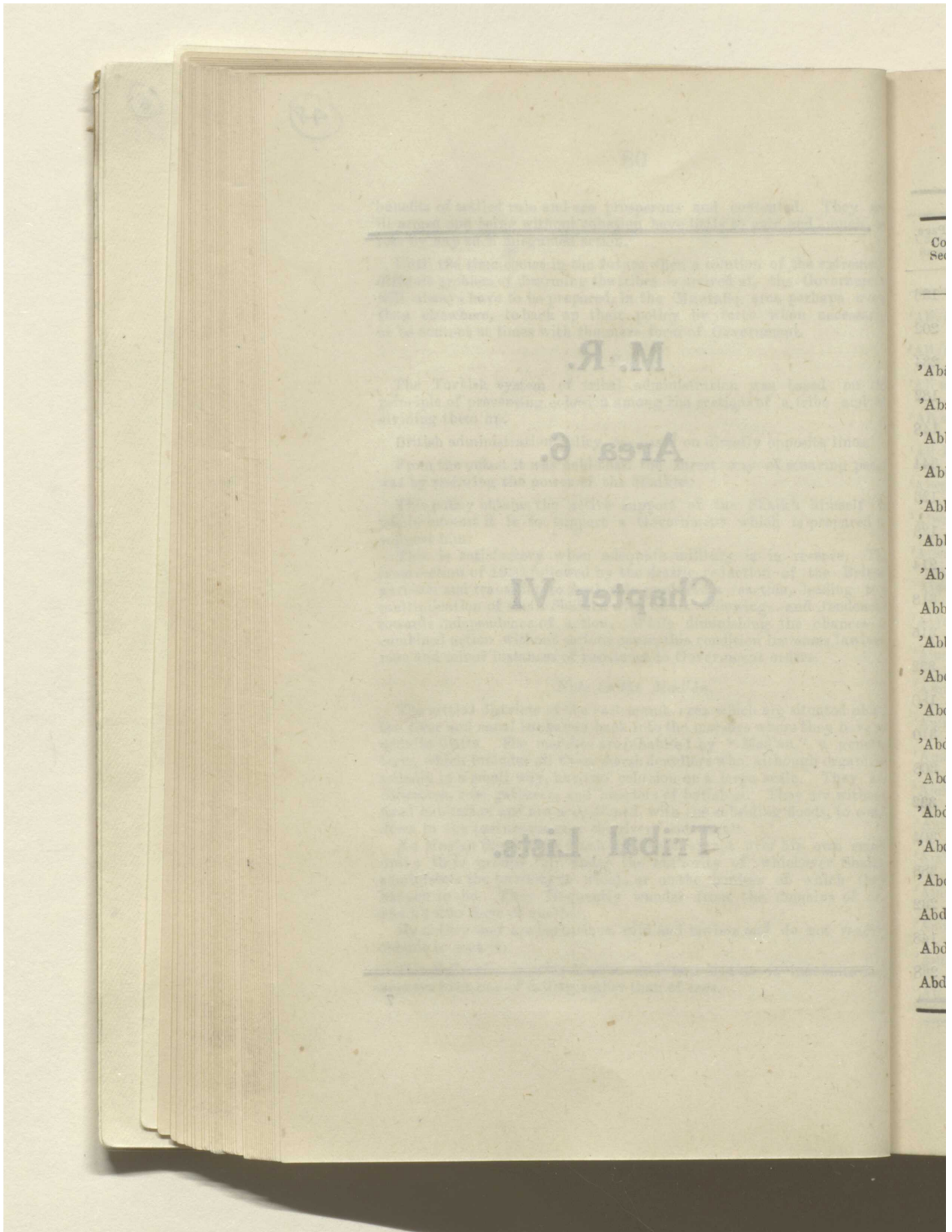
No Mad'an Shaikh has much influence except over his own small unit; their groups fall under the authority of whichever Shaikh administers the territory in which, or on the borders of which they happen to be. They frequently wander from the domains of one Shaikh into those of another.

By nature they are barbarious, wild and lawless and do not readily submit to control.

The distinction between Mad'an and non-Mad'an is indefinite and appears to be one of calling rather than of race.



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(1) 342	Husain, Albu .	Albu Sālih .	... (M)	294
(1) 226	Husain, Albu .	Bani Zaid (Dakkah)	... (M)	300
(1) 306	Husain, Bani .	Al Dhafir .	... (N M)	308
(1) 344	Husaināt, al .	Al Husaināt .	... (M)	178, 180
(1) 350	Husaini, al .	Al Husaini .	Ahl al Jazair (M)	202
(1) 232	Hutait, Bait .	Banin Hutait .	Ahl al Jazair (M)	202
(1) 240	Huwaiji, al .	Al Hasan .	... (M)	152
(1) 182	Huwaikim, Bait .	Al 'Amairah .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	218
(1) 202	Huwaimil, al .	Al Juwaibir .	... (M)	228
(1) 162, 164	I			
(1) 174	'Ibādah .	'Ibādah .	Ahl al Jazair (M)	202
(1) 298	'Ibrāhīm, al .	Al 'Ibrāhīm .	... (M)	184, 186
(1) 144	'Ibrāhīm, al .	Madinah .	... (B)	342
(1) 280	'Iehrich, al .	Al Kawāmil .	Bani Sa'id (M)	288
(1) 152	'Id, Albu .	Albu Sa'ad .	... (M)	282

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Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayib.	Confederation.	Page.
'Ifrit, al . . .	Al Rahamah . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	232
'Isa, al . . .	Al Hasan . . .	(M)	152
'Isa, al . . .	Al 'Isa . . .	Bani Sa'id (M)	288
'Isa, al . . .	Al Shumais . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	236
Isa, Bait . . .	'Abūdah . . .	... (M)	130
Isma'il al . . .	Al 'Isma'il . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	226
'Izabich . . .	'Abūdah . . .	... (M)	130
J			
Jabārah, al . . .	Bani Zaid (Bad'ah)	... (M)	298
Jabir, al . . .	Al Azairij . . .	... (M)	138
Jabr, al . . .	Al Jabr . . .	Bani Rikab (M)	278
Jaddu, al . . .	Al Jabr . . .	Bani Rikab (M)	278
Jafir, al . . .	'Abdah . . .	... (N M)	304
Jahaish, al . . .	'Aslām . . .	... (M)	306
Jahl, al . . .	'Abūdah . . .	... (M)	130
Jaikur . . .	Abul Khasib . . .	... (B)	318
Jam'an, al . . .	Suraiyyin . . .	Al Humaid (M)	172
Jammal, al . . .	Albu Salih . . .	... (M)	294
Jandil, al . . .	Albu Shamah . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	234
Jaqqanah, Albu . . .	Al Azairij . . .	... (M)	138

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Page.	Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page.
(I) 232	Jari, al . .	Al Ibrāhīm . .	... (M)	188
(I) 152	Jari, Albu . .	Al Ibrāhīm . .	... (M)	188
(I) 288	Jarrabah, al . .	Abūdah . .	... (M)	130
(I) 236	Jarrāhi . .	Harthah . .	... (B)	330
(I) 130	Jarrulah Kut . .	Ahl al Kūt . .	... (M)	256
(I) 226	Jaryah, al . .	Bani Sa'id . .	... (M)	292
(M) 130	Jash'am, al . .	Al Jash'am . .	... (M)	190, 192
	Jasim, al . .	Abūdah . .	... (M)	130
	Jasim, al . .	Al Hasan . .	... (M)	152, 154
	Jasim, al . .	Al Hawal . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	224
(M) 298	Jasim, Albu . .	Al Hasan . .	... (M)	152
(M) 138	Jassam, al . .	Khafājah . .	... (M)	214
(M) 278	Jawāli, Albu . .	Al Muhsin . .	... (M)	246
(M) 278	Jawāsim, al . .	Al Dhafir . .	... (N M)	310
(M) 304	Jazair, Ahl al . .	...	Ahl al Jazair (M)	192, 196
(M) 306	Jazirah . .	Mutairat . .	Al Mujarrah (M)	260
(M) 130	Jiblan, al . .	Mutair . .	... (N M)	312
(B) 318	Jidādah, Albu . .	Albu Sa'ad . .	... (M)	282
(M) 172	Jilah, al . .	Sharish . .	... (B)	350
(M) 294	Jillal al . .	Madinah . .	... (B)	342
(M) 234	Jināhal . .	Al Jināh . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	226
(M) 138				

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Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page.	Confeder- Section, or
Jinzi, al . . .	Bani Mansūr . . .	... (B)	348	Karkūk,
Juari . . .	Al Ma'yuf . . .	Bani Sa'id . (M)	288	Kawāmi
Jubalah . . .	Harthah . . .	... (B)	330	Khabbaz
Jubair, al . . .	Al Budūr . . .	... (M)	144	Khabiri
Juhaish, al . . .	Al Shumais . . .	Bani Khaikan (M)	236	Khablai
Jum'ah, Albu . . .	Al Azairij . . .	... (M)	138	Khadhir
Jum'ah, Albu . . .	Al Hachcham . . .	Al Mujarrah (M)	254	Khafāja
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Jumail . . .	Al Hasan . . .	... (M)	154	Khaiqar
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Juraidi, Albu . . .	Nuwāshi . . .	Al Mujarrah (M)	262	Khalaf,
Juwaibir, al . . .	Al Juwalibir . . .	Bani Khaikan (M)	228	Khalaf,
Juwainat . . .	Al Ibrahim . . .	... (M)	188	Khalaf,
Juwarin, al . . .	Al Juwarin . . .	... (M)		Khalaf,
Juwāsim, al . . .	Al Husaināt . . .	... (M)	182	Khalāti
K				
Kaianin . . .	Madīnah . . .	... (B)	344	Khālid,
Kauāsh, al . . .	Bani Zaid (Bad'ah) . . .	... (M)	300	Khalifa
Kankūn, al . . .	Khafājah . . .	... (M)	214	Khalifa
Karaiyim, al . . .	Al Hasan . . .	... (M)	152	Khalil,
Karamshah, al . . .	Harthah . . .	... (B)	332	Khama
Karbul, al . . .	Al Budūr . . .	... (M)	144	Khanfa

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Page.	Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page.
348	Karkūk, al . .	Al Ibrāhīm . .	... (M)	188
288	Kawāmil, al . .	Al Kawāmil . .	Bani Sa'id . (M)	288
330	Khabbaz . .	Juwaibir . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	228
144	Khabiriyin . .	Bani Sa'id . .	... (M)	292
236	Khablaifah, al . .	Madīnah . .	... (B)	
138	Khadhim, Albu . .	Qaraghul . .	Al Humaid . (M)	168
254	Khafājah . .	Khafājah . .	Al Mugarrah (M)	254
202	Khafājah . .	Khafājah . .	... (M)	208, 210
154	Khaiqan, Bani . .	...	Bani Khaiqan (M)	216, 218
298	Khairullah, al . .	Shuwaifāt . .	Al Humaid . (M)	170
262	Khalaf, al . .	Al Ibrāhīm . .	... (M)	188
228	Khalaf, al Haji . .	Al Shaddūd . .	Al Mugarrah (M)	266
188	Khalaf, Albu . .	Al Isma'il . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	226
	Khalaf, Albu . .	Qaraghul . .	Al Humaid . (M)	168
182	Khalāti, al . .	Al Husaināt . .	... (M)	182
	Khalid, al . .	Al Hātim . .	Bani Rikab . (M)	278
344	Khalifah, al . .	Al Budūr . .	... (M)	144
300	Khalifah, Albu . .	Albu Khalifah . .	... (M)	233, 240
214	Khalil, al . .	Al Budūr . .	... (M)	144
152	Khamais, al . .	Al Dhafir . .	... (N M)	310
332	Khanfar, al . .	Albu Atallah . .	Bani Rikab . (M)	272
144				

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Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page.
Khanjar, al . .	Khafājir . .	... (M)	214
Khanzir, al . .	Albu Sālih . .	... (M)	286, 294
Kharafayin . .	Madīnah . .	... (B)	344
Kharkūsh, al. .	Al Shams . .	Bani Sa'id . (M)	288
Khashāb, al . .	Al Ibrāhim . .	... (M)	188
Khass, al . .	Madīnah . .	... (B)	344
Khātir, al . .	Bani 'Asad . .	Ahl al Jazair (M)	196
Khawwaf, al. .	Albu 'Ayish . .	... (M)	222
Khawwaf, al. .	Albu Sālih . .	... (M)	296
Khawwai, al . .	Al Juwaibir . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	228
Khanzir, al . .	Al Fahad . .	Bani Sa'id . (M)	286
Khudhair, Albu . .	Al Azairij . .	... (M)	138
Khudhalīyah . .	Harthah . .	... (B)	330
Khufaif, al . .	Al Husaināt . .	... (M)	182
Khulaif, al . .	Al Khulaif . .	... (M)	240
Khulaif, al . .	Bani Zaid (Bad'ah)	... (M)	300
Khulaif, albu . .	'Abūdah . .	... (M)	130
Khulaifah, albu . .	Al Shumais . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	236
Khulaiwi, al . .	Albu Sālih . .	... (M)	294
Khumaisat al . .	Al Azairij . .	... (M)	138
Khusaiyah . .	Al Muhsin . .	... (M)	246

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Page.	Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page.
214	Khushaibah .	Al Dhafir .	... (N M)	310
286, 294	Khushaiyish, al	Al Ibrāhīm .	... (M)	190
344	Khutubah, al.	Al Jash'an .	... (M)	192
288	Khuwailid, al	Al Khuwailid .	Al Humaid . (M)	166
188	Khuwain, Albu	Albu Sa'ad .	... (M)	282
344	Kinana	Khafājah .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	212
196	Kolibah .	Al 'Amairah .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	218
222	Kolabah .	Khafājah .	... (M)	212
296	Kuraidi, Albu	Al Azairij .	... (M)	138
228	Kuraim, al .	Al Zayyad .	... (M)	268
286	Kuraiyin, al .	Sharish .	... (B)	350
138	Kurdi, al .	Albu Sālih .	... (M)	296
330	Kūt, Ahl al .	Ahl al Kut .	Al Mujaṛrah (M)	256
182	Kūt Bandar .	Fao .	... (B)	326
240	Kūt Jarullah .	Ahl al Kūt .	Al Mujaṛrah (M)	256
300	Kūt Khalifah .	Fao .	... (B)	326
130	Kūt Mabainah .	Ahl al Kūt .	Al Mujaṛrah (M)	256
236	Kūt al Zain .	Abul Khasib .	... (B)	320
294	Kuwaibir, al .	Al Husaināt .	... (M)	182
138				
246	L			
	Lakkadah, al .	Al Husaināt .	... (M)	180

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Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page.
Lāmi, Albu . . .	'Abūdah . . .	... (M)	128
Lughaimat . . .	Albu Sālih . . .	... (M)	296
Luhaib, al . . .	Al Jash'an . . .	... (M)	192
Luwaiyidh, Albu . . .	Al Hasan . . .	... (M)	154
M			
Ma'adin, al . . .	Al Dhafir . . .	... (N M)	310
Ma'alim, al . . .	Al Dhafir . . .	... (N M)	310
Ma'amir . . .	Fao . . .	... (B)	326
Ma'an, al . . .	Bani Zaid (Bad'ah) . . .	... (M)	298
Ma'awiyah . . .	Harthah . . .	... (B)	330
Machri, al . . .	Al Fuhūd . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	224
Ma'dan, al . . .	Al Juwaibir . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	228
Madhi, al . . .	Al Juwaibir . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	228
Madhra'ah . . .	Bani Mansūr . . .	... (B)	350
Maghsab, al . . .	Tōqīyah . . .	Al Humaid. (M)	174
Maha', al . . .	Mutair . . .	... (N M)	312
Mahādid . . .	'Aslām . . .	... (N M)	306
Mahfūd . . .	'Ajman . . .	... (N M)	304
Mahmūd, Bait . . .	'Abūdah . . .	... (M)	130
Maitan . . .	Abul Khasīb . . .	... (B)	320

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Page.	Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section, or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page.
128	Majar al . . .	Nuwāshi . . .	Al Mujarraḥ (M)	262
296	Mājid . . .	Al Jumai'an . . .	... (M)	202
192	Mājidiyah . . .	Harthah . . .	... (B)	330
154	Mālik, Banī . . .	Harthah . . .	... (B)	330
	Mānah, al . . .	Banī Zaid (Bad'ah)	... (M)	298
	Mānahir, al . . .	Al Muḥsin . . .	... (M)	244
	Manaiyah, al . . .	'Aslām . . .	... (N M)	306
310	Manājil . . .	'Abudah . . .	... (M)	132
310	Manasir . . .	'Aslām . . .	... (N M)	306
326	Manasir . . .	Al Fahad . . .	Banī Sa'id . (M)	286
298	Manāsirah, al . . .	Al Jabr . . .	Banī Rikab . (M)	280
330	Manawi Lijm . . .	Abul Khasīb . . .	... (B)	322
224	Manna', al . . .	Al Manna' . . .	... (M)	240
228	Mansūr, al . . .	Albu 'Atallah . . .	Banī Rikab . (M)	272
228	Mansūr, al . . .	Al Hasan . . .	... (M)	154
350	Mansur, Banī . . .	Banī Mansūr . . .	... (B)	348
174	Ma'qil . . .	Harthah . . .	... (B)	330
312	Marashidah, al . . .	Al Jabr . . .	Banī Rikab . (M)	280
306	Marāwinah, al . . .	Khafājah . . .	... (M)	212
304	Māri', al . . .	Al Ma'yuf . . .	Banī Sa'id . (M)	288
130	Marid, al . . .	Shuraifāt . . .	... (M)	298
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Masā'ud . . .	'Aslām . . .	... (N M)	306
Māsbākhil, al . . .	Khafājah . . .	... (M)	212
Mashbak, al . . .	Al Ghashim . . .	Bani Sa'id . (M)	286
Mashkur, al . . .	Al Hawal . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	224
Mashkur, al . . .	Al Juwaibir . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	228
Ma'sud, al . . .	Khafajah . . .	... (M)	212
Matrud, al . . .	Albu 'Ayish . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	222
Matrud, al . . .	Al Fuhaili . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	222
Maulyah, al . . .	Al Ghazzi . . .	... (M)	148
Ma'yuf, al . . .	Al Ma'yuf . . .	Bani Sa'id . (M)	288
Ma'adan, al . . .	Al Hasan . . .	... (M)	154
Mi'afah, al . . .		Bani Sa'id . (M)	292
Mijar, al . . .	Al Rahamah . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	232
Milhan, al . . .	Al Husainat . . .	... (M)	182
Mir Uthman, al . . .	Madīnah . . .	... (B)	
Mirshad, al . . .	Al Budūr . . .	... (M)	144
Misāmīr, al . . .	Al Dhafir . . .	... (N M)	310
Misha'al, Bait . . .	Madīnah . . .	... (B)	344
Mōkar, al . . .	Al 'Aasakrah . . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	220
Mu'abbir, ahl al . . .	Bani 'Asad . . .	Ahl al Jazair (M)	196

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Page.	Confederation, Tribe, Section, sub-section or Area.	Tribe, Qadha or Nahayih.	Confederation.	Page..
228				
306	Mu'aijib, al . .	Aibu Sālih . .	... (M)	296
212	Mu'ailu, Albu .	Bani Zaid (Dakkab)	... (M)	300
286	Mu'awi, al . .	Bani Musharraf .	Ahl al Jazair (M)	204
224	Mu'aiyidhi . .	Harthah . .	... (B)	330
228	Mu'aizib, al . .	Al Jumai'an . .	... (M)	204
212	Mu'arrif, al . .	Bani Zaid (Bad'ah)	... (M)	298
222	Mu'awiyin, al .	Al Hasan . .	... (M)	154
222	Mubādir, al . .	Al Ibrāhīm . .	... (M)	190
148	Mubarak, al . .	Al Budūr . .	... (M)	144
288	Mudaizab, al . .	Al Rahamah . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	232
154	Mufadhal . .	'Abdah . .	... (N M)	304
292	Mufadhal, al . .	Al Sālih . .	Bani Rikab . (M)	280
232	Mughaimish . .	Al Hasan . .	... (M)	156
182	Mughāmis, al .	'Abūdah . .	... (M)	130
	Mughatta, al .	Al 'Asakrah . .	Bani Khaiqan (M)	220
144	Muhaibis, Albu .	Bani Zaid (Bad'ah)	... (M)	300
310	Muhaijaran . .	Abul Khasib . .	... (B)	320
344	Muhailah . .	Fao . .	... (B)	326
220	Muhaiyat . .	...	... (B)	
196	Muhamid, al . .	Dair . .	... (B)	336

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Square Measure (used throughout Area 6).

1 Jarib=10 Kafir	=4,745.6 sq. yards.
1 Kafir=10 Ashir	=474.56 sq. yards.
1 Ashir=4 sq. gushbas	=47.456 sq. yards.
1 Gusba	=124 inches.
1 New Dōnum (Dōnum Jadid)	=10,000 sq. dhra (yed)=2,500 sq. metres=2,990.4 sq. yards.
1 Old Dōnum (Dōnum Atiq)	=3,800 sq. dhra (yed)=950 sq. metres=1,136.4 sq. yards.
1 Awleq	=400 sq. dhra (yed)=100 sq. metres=119.6 sq. yards.
1 Dhra (Jadid)	=4 sq. dhra (yed)=1 sq. metre=1.196 sq. yard.

APPENDIX B.

NOTE ON THE HAMMAR LAKE.

The main obstruction to through navigation for river steamers with barges between Basrah, Nāsiriya and beyond is the Hammar Lake, which has to be traversed.

During the War, the original military intention was to make and maintain a channel to admit of river boats and barges of 6-foot draught being able to get through *at all seasons of the year* between Basrah and Nāsiriya. This was done by the dredging of a channel 180 feet wide and 10 feet deep across the Hammar Lake the soil being thrown up on the south side of the dredged channel and forming an incomplete bund from Mazliq to Bani Hutait. Matters were further improved by cutting a 5-mile channel of the same dimensions direct from Bani Sa'id to Mazliq which was completed in January 1919, and which carried the whole volume of water of which previously two-thirds flowed into the Hammar Lake *via* the Nakhla Channel and one-third *via* the Mazliq Channel.

Unfortunately shoals began to form almost immediately with the result that by October 1919 downstream of the Mazliq in the Hammar Lake itself, and at Chabaish, silting up was of such extent that where 10 feet of water was hoped for there was actually only a depth of 2 feet 6 inches. Dredging operations had therefore to be resumed, and these were continued intermittently until the insurrection of 1920, since when nothing has been done, and the cutting of the bunds in several places by the insurgents together with wear from wave action during storms has practically nullified the whole of the work and of the immense sums of money previously expended on the project. Unfortunately it would appear that funds were not forthcoming for the upkeep of the channel, though a moderate sum expended on revetting the bund would have preserved it from wave action, and resulted in the reclamation of large areas of land from which revenue would have been obtainable, and which further, in the event of hostilities, would have made possible the pursuit of marauding tribes—an important military factor. Except for this, and the co-operation of gunboats in operations against the ever refractory tribes of the Lower Euphrates, the necessity of the navigability of the Euphrates has greatly decreased owing to the completion of the railway from Basrah to Baghdad *via* Nāsiriya and Hillah. It is very doubtful therefore, in view of the cost, whether the project of remaking and maintaining a navigable channel through the Hammar Lake will be re-opened for some years to come.

Water
Basrah at
(a) for
(b) for

Mā'qil .
Do. .
Makinah .
Do. .
Do. .
Shu'aibah .
Do. .
Do. .
Ratāwi .
Jalībāh .
Tel-al-Lahn .
Ur Junction .
Do. .
Do. .
Nāsiriya .
Darīājī .
Do. .

Mileage of
Water point

197·80
202·60
207·40
212·20
217·00

APPENDIX C.

Water storage accommodation at railway stations between Basrah and Darrāji—

- (a) for Loco. use.
(b) for drinking purposes.

A.—For Loco. use.

		Gallons.
Mā'qil . . .	Settling tanks . . .	500,000
Do. . .	High service tanks . . .	12,800
Makīnah . . .	Settling tanks, brick lined . . .	300,000
Do. . .	Settling tanks, mud lined . . .	225,000
Do. . .	High service tanks . . .	31,500
Shu'aibah . . .	Settling tanks, brick lined . . .	600,000
Do. . .	High service tanks . . .	31,500
Do. . .	Do. . .	4,800
Ratāwi . . .	Do. . .	16,000
Jalībāh . . .	Do. . .	16,000
Tel-al-Lahm . . .	Do. . .	4,800
Ur Junction . . .	Settling tanks . . .	1,600,000
Do. . .	High service tanks . . .	56,250
Do. . .	Do. . .	12,800
Nāsiriyyah . . .	Do. . .	15,000
Darrāji . . .	Settling tanks . . .	300,000
Do. . .	High service tanks . . .	1,600

B.—For drinking purposes.

Mileage of Water point.	Name of Station or Halt.	Storage accommodation of drinking water available in gallons.	REMARKS.
		Gallons.	
197-80	Darrāji . . .	400	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
202-60	Al Hamrah . . .	400	Ditto
207-40	Bathah . . .	400	Ditto.
212-20	Al Wayil . . .	400	Ditto
217-00	Sikhari . . .	400	Ditto.

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B.—For drinking purposes—contd.

Mileage of Water point.	Name of Station or Halt.	Storage accommodation of drinking water available in gallons.	REMARKS.	Mileage of water point.
221-80	Tel Obeid .	400	1 tank, 4' x 4' x 4'.	318-99
226-58	Ur Junction .	400	Ditto. Drinking water taps on platform.	323-84
229-90	Tel Nugaiyir .	400	1 tank, 4' x 4' x 4'.	329-02
235-66	Murājib .	500	4 tanks, 3' x 3' x 3'.	335-85
241-85	Abu Rasain .	400	4 tanks, 3' x 2' x 2'.	342-00
248-08	Tel-al-Lahm .	600	2 tanks, 4' x 4' x 2'. 1 tank, 4' x 3' x 3'.	347-63
254-01	Tel-al-Jabārah .	400	1 tank, 4' x 4' x 2'. 1 tank, 3' x 2' x 2'.	354
260-76	Qabr .	400	2 tanks, 4' x 4' x 2'.	8 furlongs from Maki-nah.
265-30	Jalibah .	800	4 tanks, 4' x 4' x 2'. Also drinking water taps.	30 furlongs from Maki-nah.
269-08	Gang Hut .	400	2 tanks, 4' x 4' x 2'.	356-08
273-00	Hamidiyah .	268	3 tanks, 3' x 2' x 2'.	
277-71	Kuraiz .	228	3 tanks, 2' x 2' x 2'. 1 tank, 1' x 1' x 1'.	
283-34	Luqait .	1,130	4 tanks, 4' x 4' x 4'. 2 tanks, 3' x 3' x 3'.	
288-31	Kelat Loh .	443	1 tank, 4' x 4' x 4'. 2 tanks, 2' x 2' x 2'.	
292-83	Yadillah .	394	4 tanks, 2' x 2' x 2'.	
299-40	Ghabishiyah .	1,180	2 tanks, 4' x 4' x 2'. 1 tank, 5' x 5' x 5'.	
303-77	Resarf Telam .	390	1 tank, 3' x 3' x 3'. 1 tank, 4' x 3' x 3'.	
308-97	Ratāwi .	1,166	7 tanks, 2' x 10' x 3'. Also drinking water taps.	
313-93	Rumallah .	566	1 tank, 4' x 4' x 4'. 1 tank, 2' x 3' x 4'.	

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B.—For drinking purposes—concl'd.

Mileage of water point.	Name of Station or Halt.	Storage, accommodation of drinking water available in gallons.	REMARKS.
318.99	Quraināt .	gallons 400	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
323.84	Hukhailah .	400	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
329.02	Taubah .	600	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
335.85	Chuaibdah .	566	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
342.00	Shu'aibah .	2,400	Special tanks.
347.63	Zubair Junction	566	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'. 1 tank, 4' × 3' × 2'.
354	Basrah Gate .	400	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
8 furlongs from Makinah.	On Shaibah .	250	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
30 furlongs from Makinah.	Bund line .	500	1 tank, 4' × 4' × 4'.
356.08	Makinah .	..	Drinking water taps on platforms.

APPENDIX D.

NOTE ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PORT OF BASRAH.

Previous to the War no facilities existed for the berthing of deep-sea steamers and for the discharge of import cargo.

During the War it was found necessary to build wharves for effecting the rapid discharge of troops and War material. A suitable site was chosen at Ma'qil and wharves complete with cranes and cargo landing devices were erected. It was only when Government Transports began to be handed back to owners that commercial cargo commenced to be landed at the Ma'qil wharves.

The necessity for shedding accommodation for merchants' cargo in close proximity to wharves then arose and nine sheds have been built.

The Port of Basrah Proclamation (Provisional) 1919 placed the port on its present footing, defining its areas, organization, duties and powers.

In connection with the Port there exists an efficient survey department responsible for recording all changes in depth of water from Basrah to the Outer Bar.

The buoyage of the Bar and river is also maintained by the port.

The prospective dredging of the Outer Bar should affect shipping entering Basrah very considerably, as 25 feet will be available as against 18 feet to 20 feet at present.

Wharves.

There are 3,000 feet of continuous wharf at Upper Ma'qil which is divided into 6 berths of 500 feet each, with an average depth alongside of 24 feet at low tide. This wharf is fitted with electric cranes, railway lines, sheds, etc. The berths are numbered 1-6. Downstream of No. 6 berth, divided from the Upper Ma'qil Wharves by Lynch's Dockyard, is No. 7 Wharf; used principally as a coal wharf, being fitted with steam cranes, railways, etc., to facilitate discharge.

The next wharf suitable for ocean going vessels is No. 11 which is not fitted with cranes, but is used mostly for embarking or disembarking.

No. 8 is built of pontoons with small jetties from the shore and seldom used by ocean going steamers.

Nos. 9
loading, b
Farthe
Ambulanc
Downs
used by r

Nos. 9 and 10 are wooden wharves, used principally for up river loading, but can be used for deep-sea ships.

Farther down river there is a jetty at No. 3 B. G. H. used by Ambulance Transports.

Downstream of this is "Bhoosa Pier," a wooden landing stage used by river steamers only.

APPENDIX E.

NOTE ON DATES.

All the best and most fruitful date producing localities of Irāq fall into the area included in this report.

I.—Locations.

Date gardens border both sides of the Euphrates from a few miles upstream of Nāsiriya to the Mazliq Channel; they average a depth inland of 4—500 yards, and are mostly privately owned. Merchants and townsmen invest much of their capital in these gardens.

There are large plantations on the north shores of the Hammar Lake from the Fuhūd to Bani Hutait.

There are considerable gardens at Chabaish and south of the Hammar Lake between the Mazliq and 'Ibādah territory.

Passing down the Euphrates there are many trees at Madīnah whence gardens exist almost continuously along the right bank to Qurnah where there are gardens to the north of the Euphrates and on the left bank of the Tigris but more especially for 5 miles down the right bank of the Shatt al-Arab.

From Nahr Umr, down the Shatt-al-Arab, to Fāo is the greatest date producing area. There are date gardens on both banks which vary in width from a few hundred yards to five miles.

II.—Trade.

Dates from Nāsiriya, Sūq and the Hammar areas are not exported to Basrah to any great extent as the Basrah dates, generally speaking, are of better quality and have the great advantage of being more handy for shipping. (The best variety of Irāq dates, however, is grown in the Sūq district.) In these areas trade in dates is therefore limited to an interchange between one district and another of agricultural commodities produced in excess or deficit as the case may be.

III.—Types.

There are hundreds of different varieties of dates but for commercial purposes all dates are classed as Halawi, Khadrawi, and Sair (the rest). The first is popular in America, the second and third sell well in Europe, while India and Persia are content with the third,

Dates are
baskets to

Date trees
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The fertilis
and is carr
are not fit
cient for f
Date trees
within five
will not be
stone will
definitely

(a) The
country.

(b) "W
fodder.

(c) Aral

(d) The
making, bu

(e) The
building.

(f) The

(g) The

(h) Mat

Normal
method of
tidal action

As the t
water bein

The da
irrigation.

IV.—Shipping.

Dates are shipped in boxes for America and Europe and in baskets to India and for Persia.

V.—Characteristics.

Date trees live to 100 years but lose their vigour at 80. They die if they are deprived of water, and drown if flooded too much. The fertilisation which is done by human agency, is called *Ligah* and is carried out in April and May. Dates ripen in August but are not fit for preservation till September. One male tree is sufficient for 50 female trees. An acre bears rather over 100 trees. Date trees are grown from offshoots or suckers, which bear fruit within five years. In Mesopotamia a date tree grown from a stone will not bear fruit, but in America a tree grown from a similar stone will do so. The exact reason of this has not as yet been definitely ascertained.

VI.—Uses of the trees and fruit.

(a) The ripe fruit is one of the principal articles of food in the country.

(b) "Windfalls" are collected and used for human or animal fodder.

(c) Arak is distilled from the Zehdi dates.

(d) The branches are used for fuel and as material for furniture making, building and fencing.

(e) The trunks are used for bridging irrigation cuts and for house building.

(f) The fruit stalks are made into brooms.

(g) The fibre is made into rope.

(h) Matting is made from the leaves.

VII.—Methods of Irrigation.

Normally by "lift" or by "flow" but in the Basrah area the method of irrigating date trees is out of the ordinary on account of tidal action.

As the tide rises the river level also rises on account of the river water being banked up several feet.

The date growers take advantage of this to establish subsoil irrigation.

Deep "cuts" are dug in the land between the trees, these are connected up to the main channels which in turn are connected with the creeks, which carry the waters inland from the river. So long as these "cuts" are kept clear of silt they fill up and empty as the tide rises and falls; thus the river water permeates the subsoil with every change in the tide. The trees will flourish if the "cuts" are so maintained that they are empty at low tide, in order that the gardens may not remain flooded. With this reservation the more water the trees get the better they thrive, but a tree left to grow in permanent water will die.

CO

Move the slide
opposite XII of

413

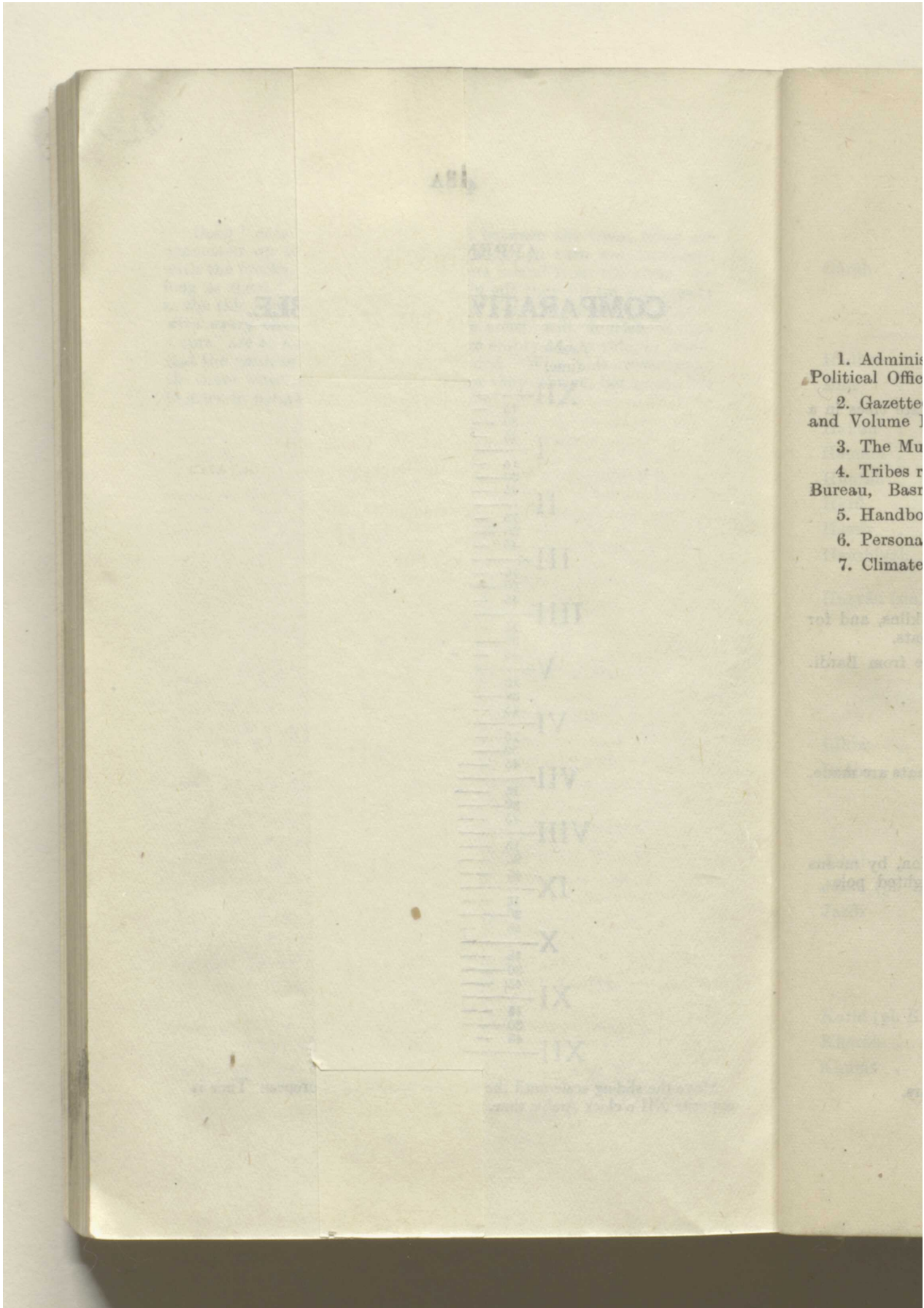
APPENDIX F.

COMPARATIVE TIME TABLE.

Arabic time.	European time.
XII	15
15	30
30	45
45	VI
I	15
15	30
30	45
45	VII
II	15
15	30
30	45
45	VIII
III	15
15	30
30	45
45	IX
IIII	15
15	30
30	45
45	X
V	15
15	30
30	45
45	XI
VI	15
15	30
30	45
45	XII
VII	15
15	30
30	45
45	I
VIII	15
15	30
30	45
45	II
IX	15
15	30
30	45
45	III
X	15
15	30
30	45
45	IIII
XI	15
15	30
30	45
45	V
XII	15

Move the sliding scale until the time of sunset by European Time is opposite XII o'clock Arabic time.

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APPENDIX H.

GLOSSARY OF ARABIC TERMS.

A.

Amārah	Cultivated land under date trees in a date garden.
Aradhi Amumiyah	Public land.
Arasa	Ground rent.
Auqaf	Plural of Waqf.

B.

Baghlah	Arab dhow.
Bardi	A reed used for fuel in kilns, and for making coarse reed mats.
Bawāri	A coarse reed mat made from Bardi.
Bir	Well or pit.

C.

Chaulān	A reed from which soft mats are made.
-------------------	---------------------------------------

D.

Dālia	A method of lift irrigation, by means of a bucket and weighted pole.
Dukhn	Millet.

F.

Fahl Nakhl	Male date tree.
Fallāh	Cultivator.
Falih	Fishing spear.
Farakh (pl. Farūkh) Nakhl	A date tree up to 5 years.

Gārah .

Hadhr .

Hāji .

Hafidh .

Hamara .

Huntah .

Hārī .

Hassir .

Haushiyah .

Husyān (sin. .

Idhra .

Imām .

Jabal .

Jalab (pl. Ijl

Jarīb .

Karid (pl. Kar

Kharāh .

Khums .

217

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G.

Gārah A raft of mats or reeds.

H.

Hadhr Settled cultivators.

Hāji A Muhammadan who has done the pilgrimage to Mecca.

Hafidh Quran reader.

Hamara A disease which attacks wheat

Huntah Wheat.

Hārī A kind of paddy.

Hassir A soft reed mat.

Haushiyah A Shaikh's body guard (Riveraine Arab expression only).

Husyān (sin. Hasu) Holes dug in sand near river bed in order to obtain water, e. g. at Dafinah and Baswah.

I.

Idhra Millet.

Imām A leader of prayer in a mosque.

J.

Jabal Hill.

Jalab (pl. Ijlāb) Import duty on sheep.

Jarib 42,700 square feet.

K.

Karid (pl. Karūd) A method of lift irrigation.

Kharāh Uncultivated land anywhere.

Khum One-fifth (used in revenue matters)

28

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L.

Ligāh Pollenisation of date trees.

M.

Mallak A landowner (holding title deeds).
Māmūr Subordinate officials.
Māsh Small round seed—eaten like dhall
or can be ground into a kind of
flour.
Miri Government land, i.e., land for which
no private ownership is claimed.
Mudir Subordinate official.
Mugharisa Planter.
Mujtāhid A Shiah religious authority.
Mukhtar Village headman.
Mullah A doctor of holy law.

N.

Nagāsh Hereditary tenant.
Nahiyah A section of a Qadha or Sanjaq.
Nakhal A female date tree.
Nakhlah Nu'a A date tree grown from a stone.
Nashwah A date tree between 6 and 9 years.

Q.

Qadha A sub-division or district.
Qādhī A Muhammadan religious judge.
Qassab A reed used for fuel in brick kilns.

S.

Shabānah A local levy.
Saifi Summer crops.
Saiyid A Moslem claiming descent from the
Prophet.

Sanad .
Sanniyah

Saqqah .
Sarifah
Sarkāl .
Shabbaq
Sha'ir .
Shauk .
Shawiyah

Shiah .
Shibak .
Shilib .
Shitwi .
Sunni .

Tā'ab .
Tāpū .
Tawilah .
Timman .
Tin .
Toot. Tūt

Waqf

218

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Sanad	Title deed.
Sanniyah	Crown land now belonging to Govern- ment. Formerly private property of Sultan Abdul Hamid.
Saqqah	A water carrier.
Sarifah	A mat hut.
Sarkāl	Bailiff or "Factor."
Shabbaq	Fishing net (small).
Sha'ir	Barley.
Shauk	Scrub on which camels graze.
Shawiyah	Shepherds using the donkey for transport in lieu of the camel.
Shiah	One of the two main divisions of Islam.
Shibak	Drag net (for fishing).
Shilib	Paddy (unhusked rice).
Shitwī	Winter crops.
Sunni	One of the two main divisions of Islam.

T.

Tā'ab	Planter.
Tāpū	Land registration.
Tawīlah	A mature date tree over 9 years old
Timman	Rice.
Tin	Fig.
Toot. Tūt	Mulberry.

W.

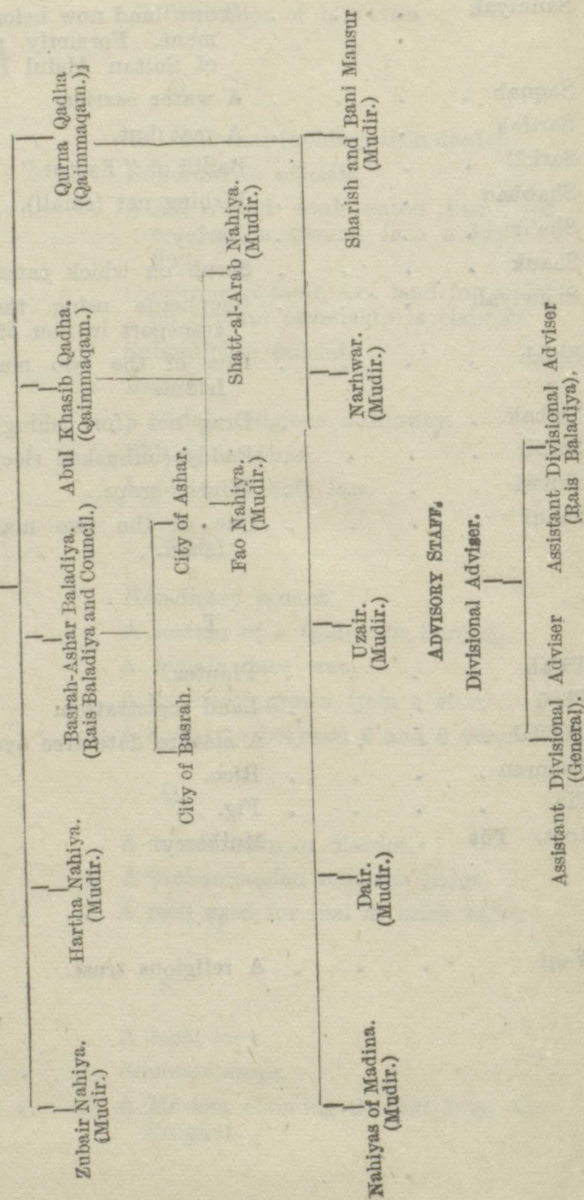
Waqf	A religious trust.
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APPENDIX J.

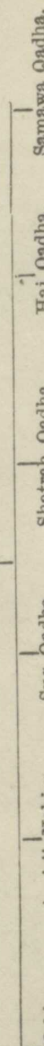
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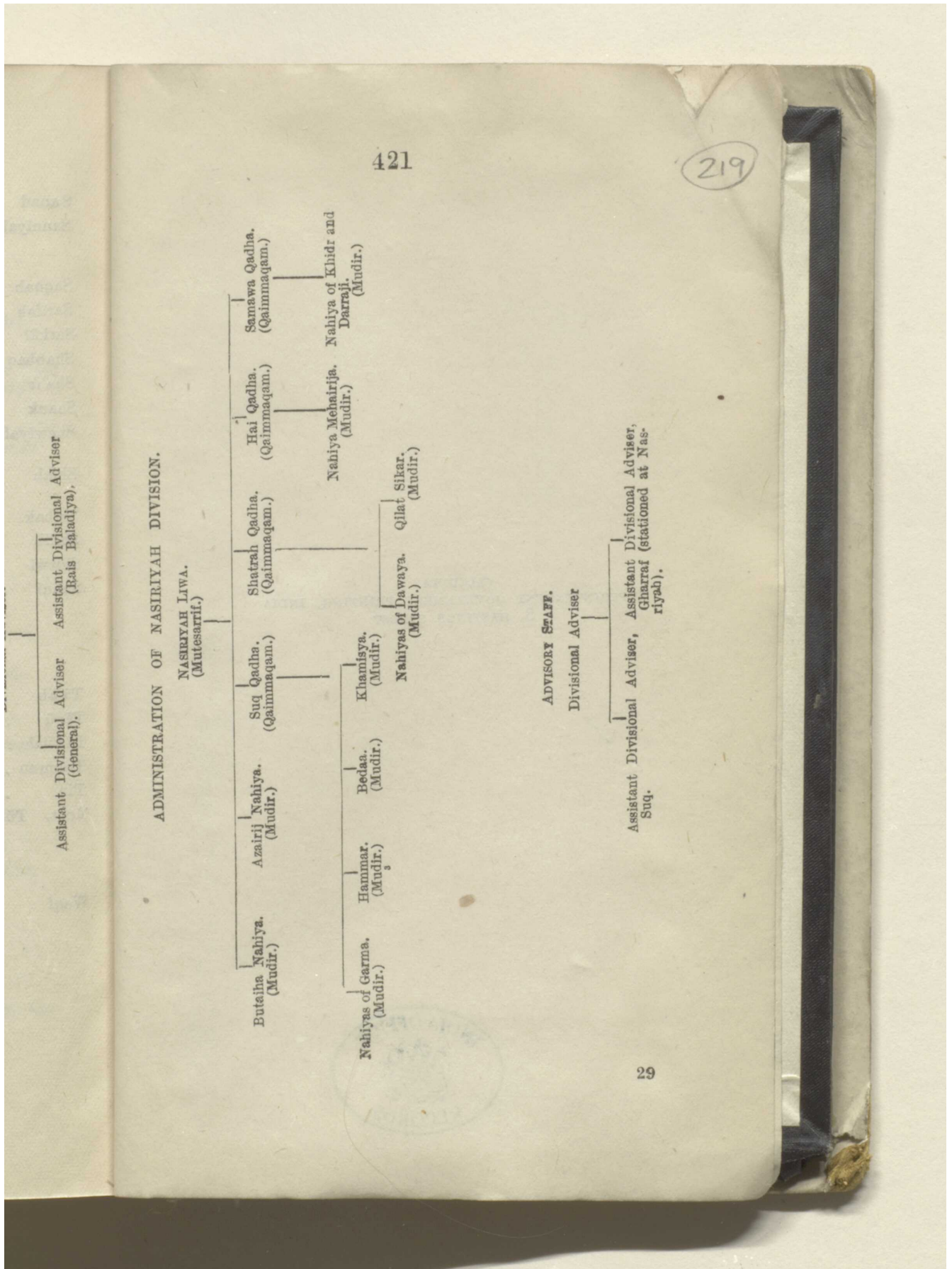
BASRAH LIWA.
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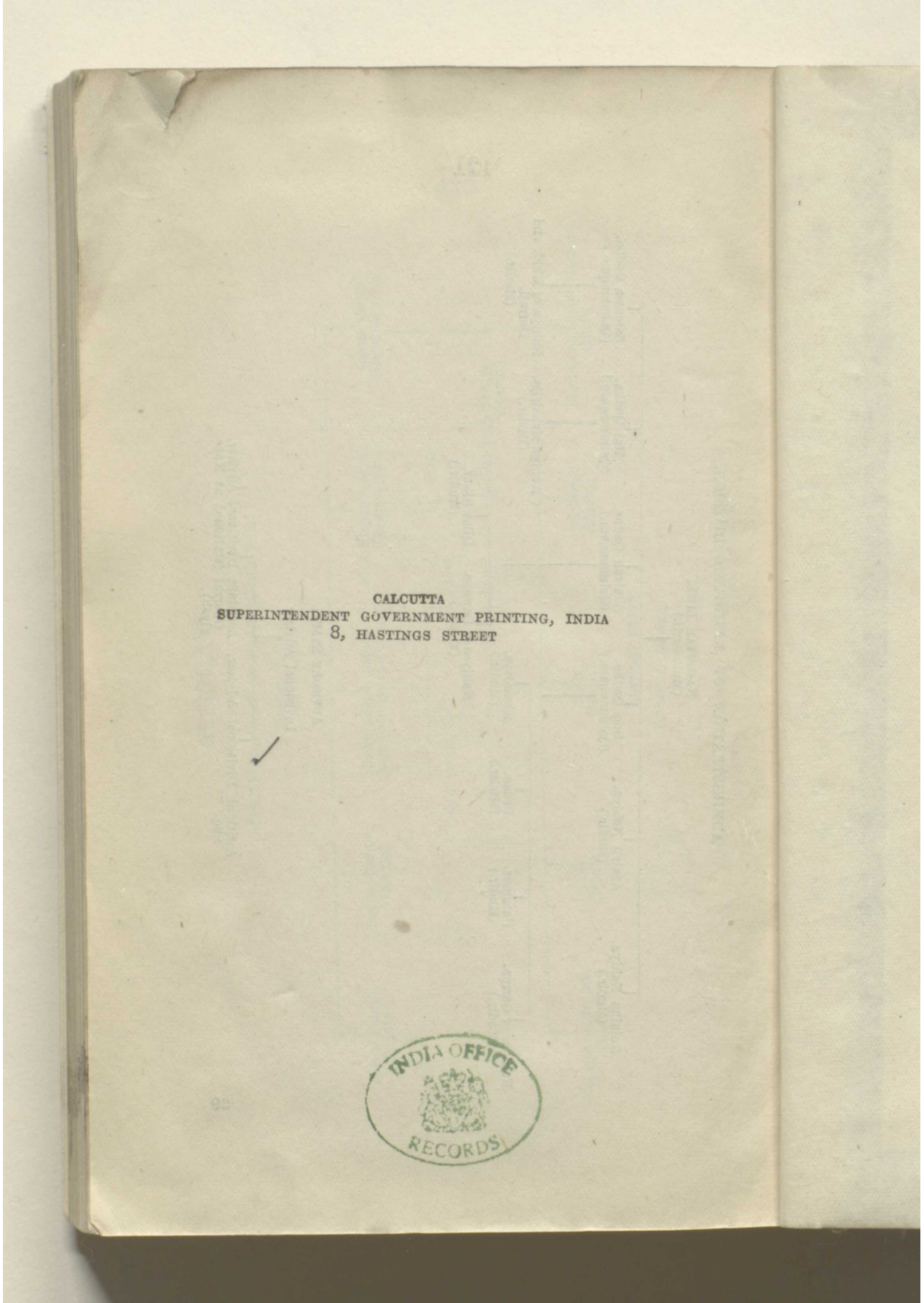
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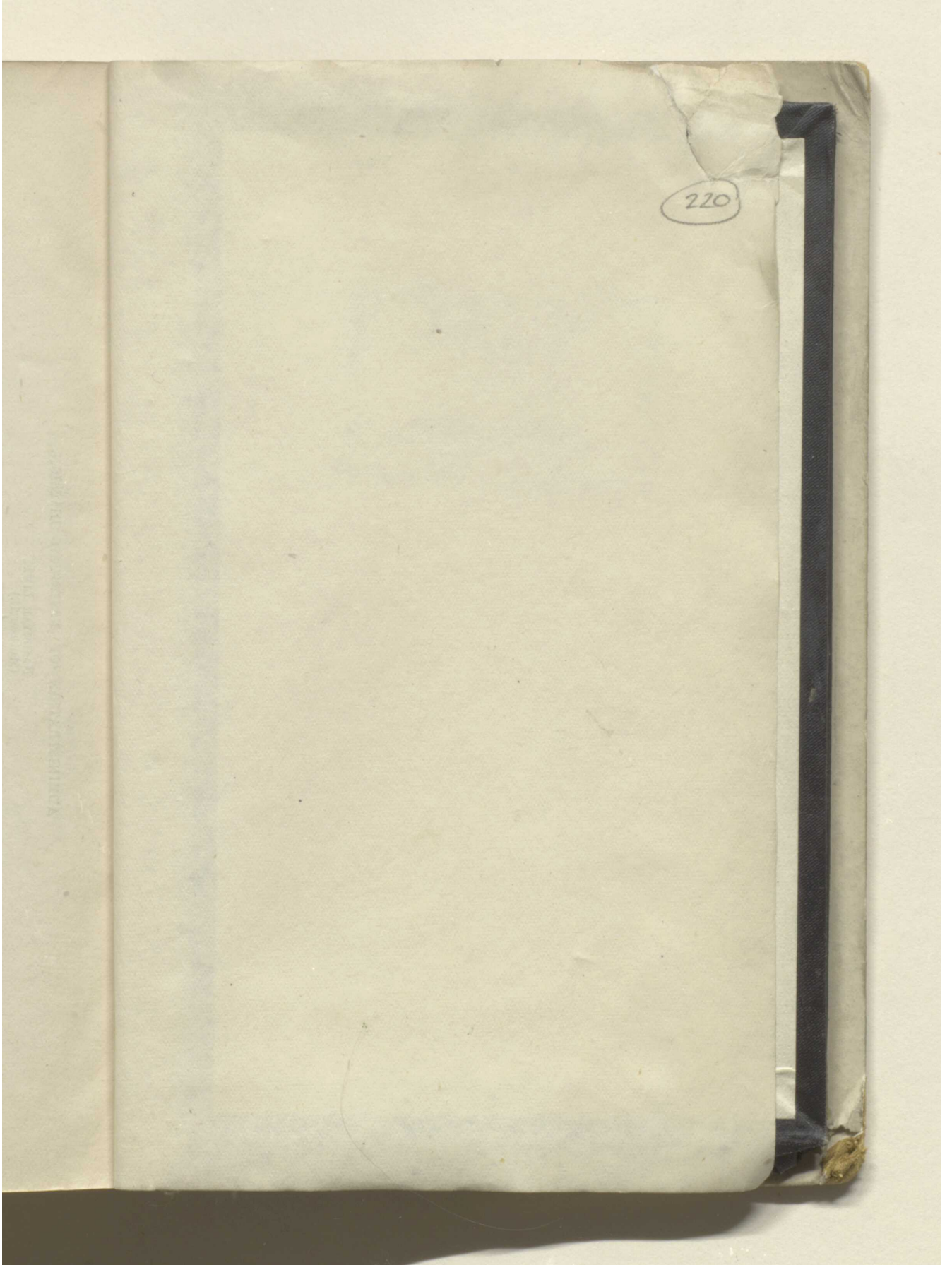




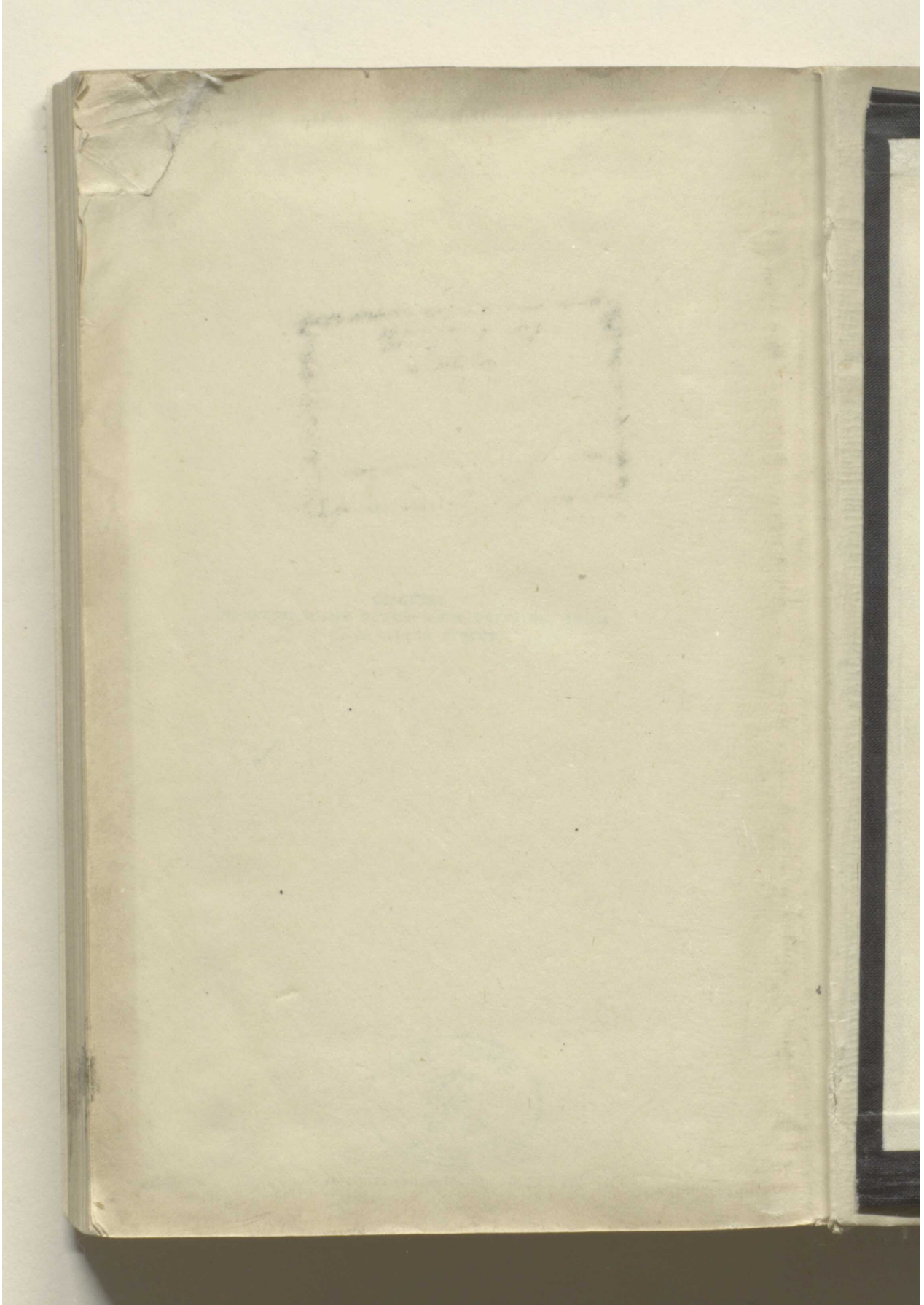
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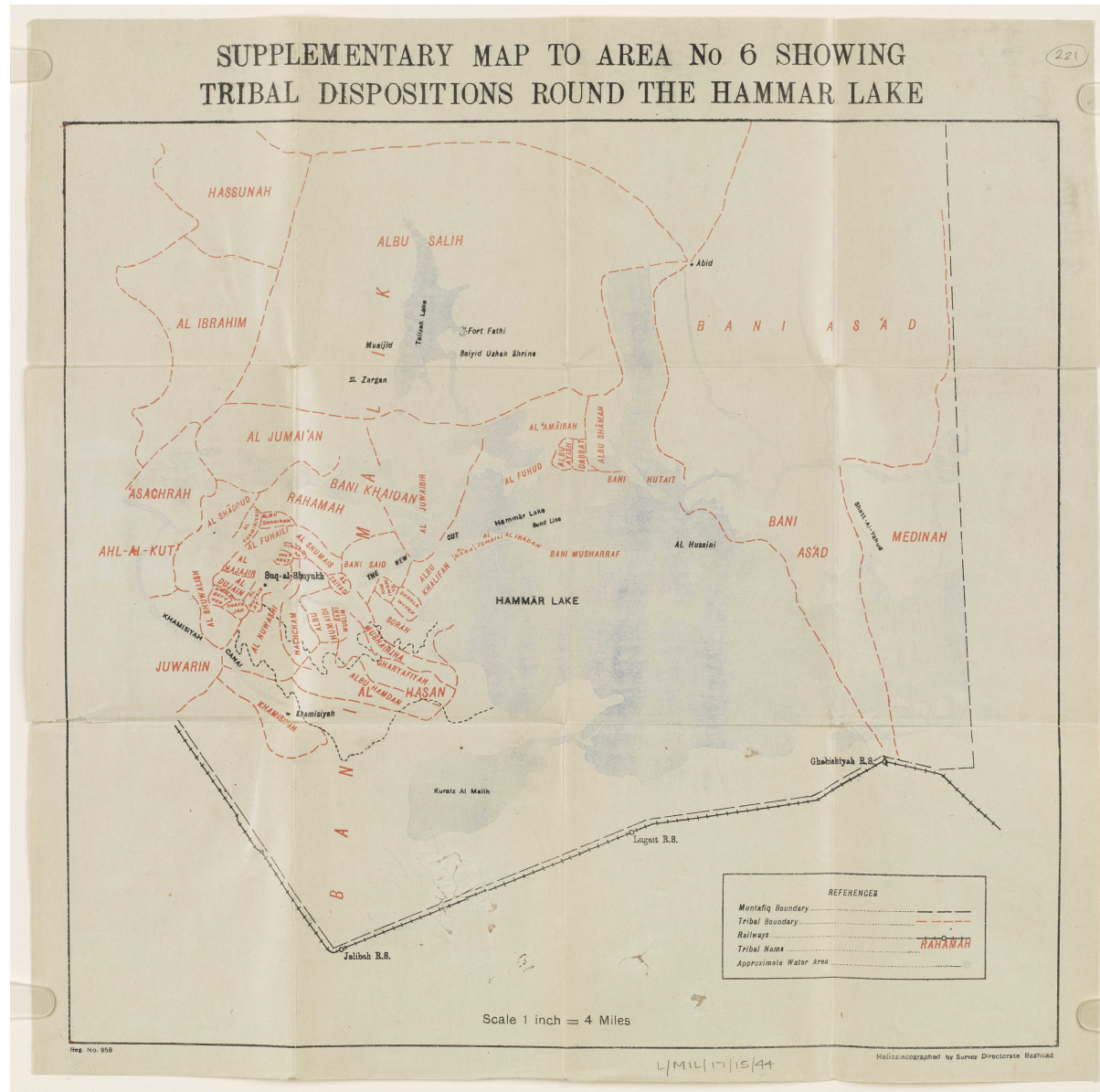
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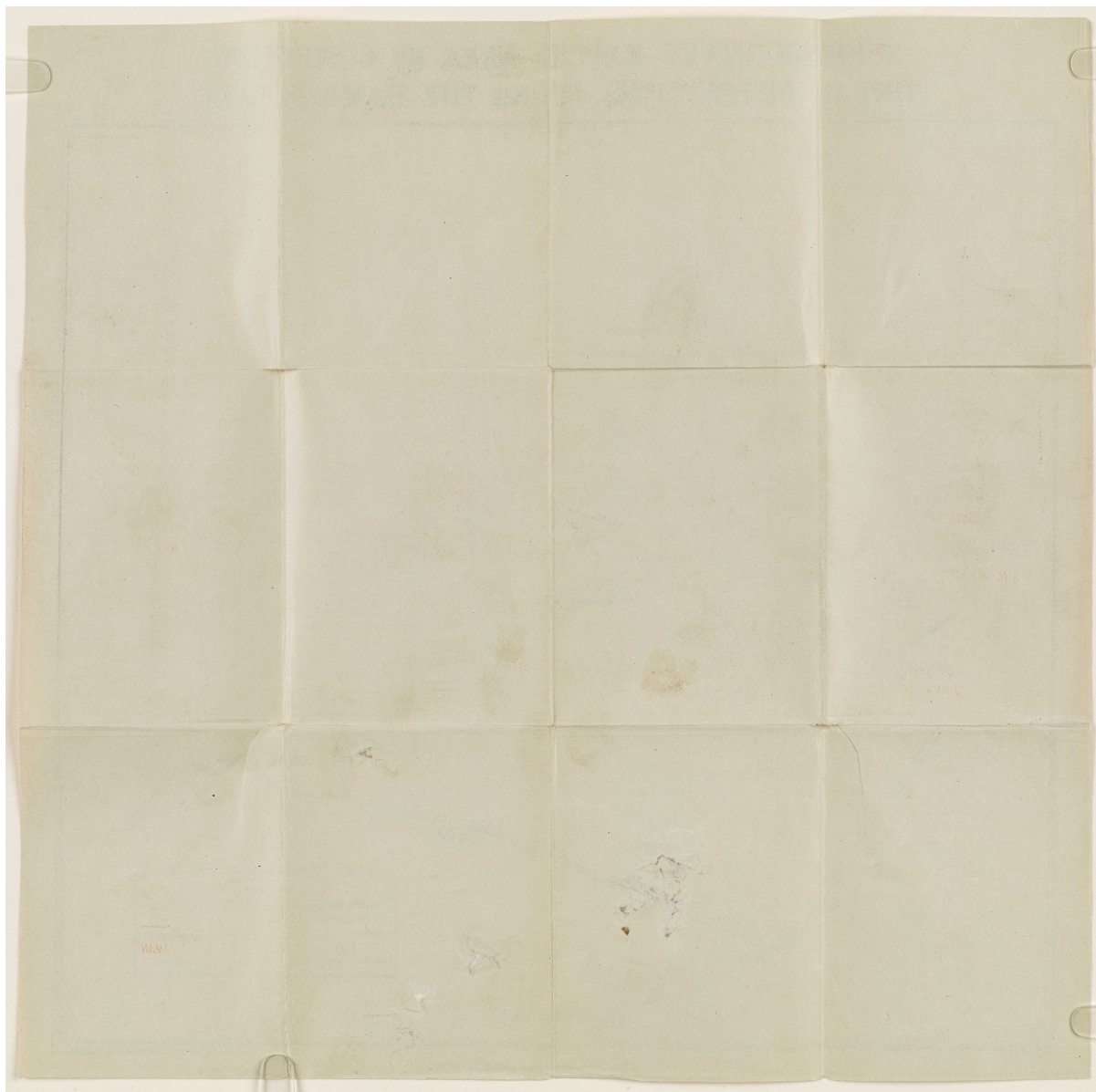
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"خريطة تكميلية للمنطقة ٦ تُظهر التنظيمات القبلية حول هور الحمّار" [٢٠٢١ و] (٢/١)

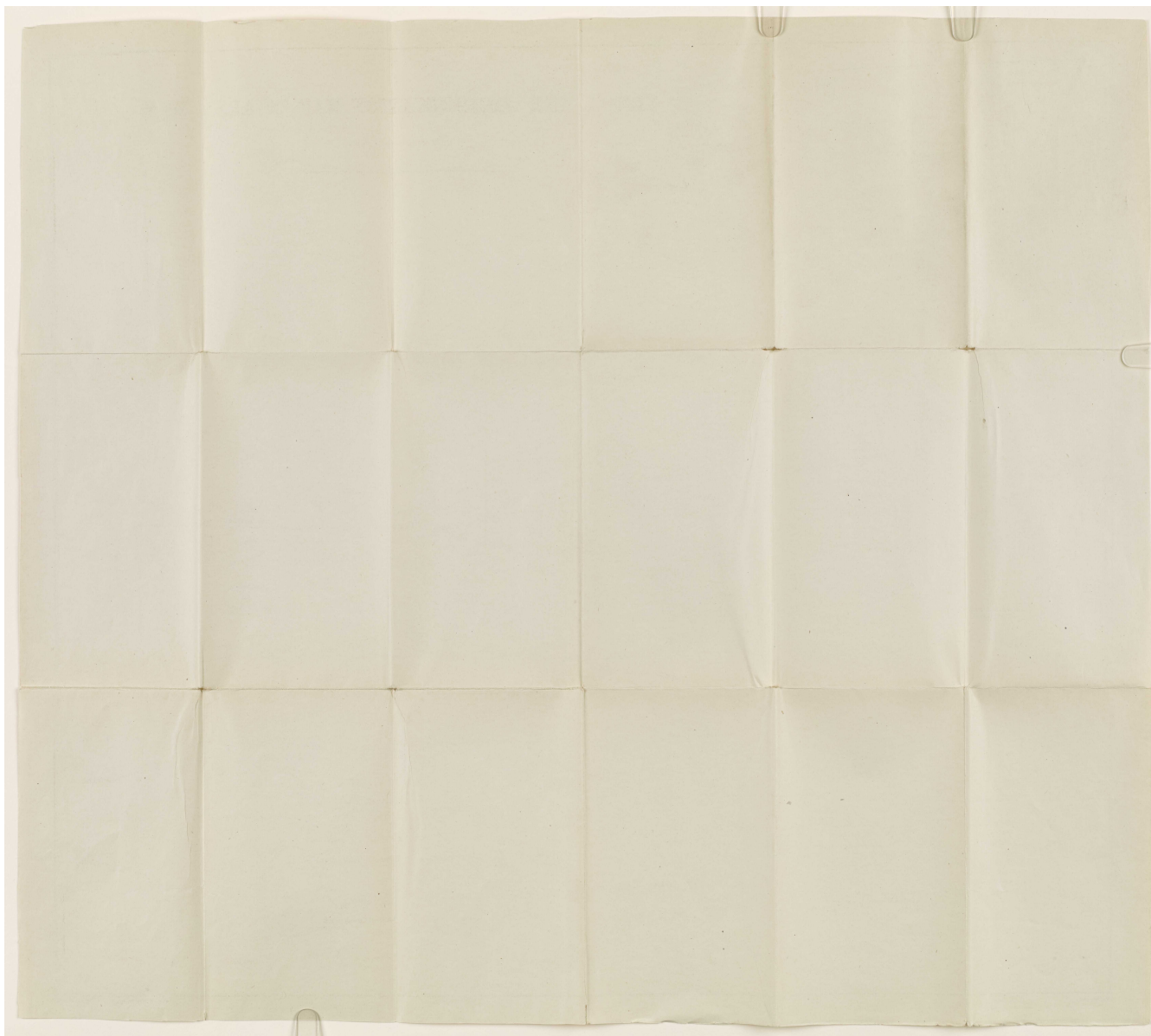


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"خريطة للقبائل ووسائل الاتصال في المنطقة" [٢٢٢و] (٢/١)

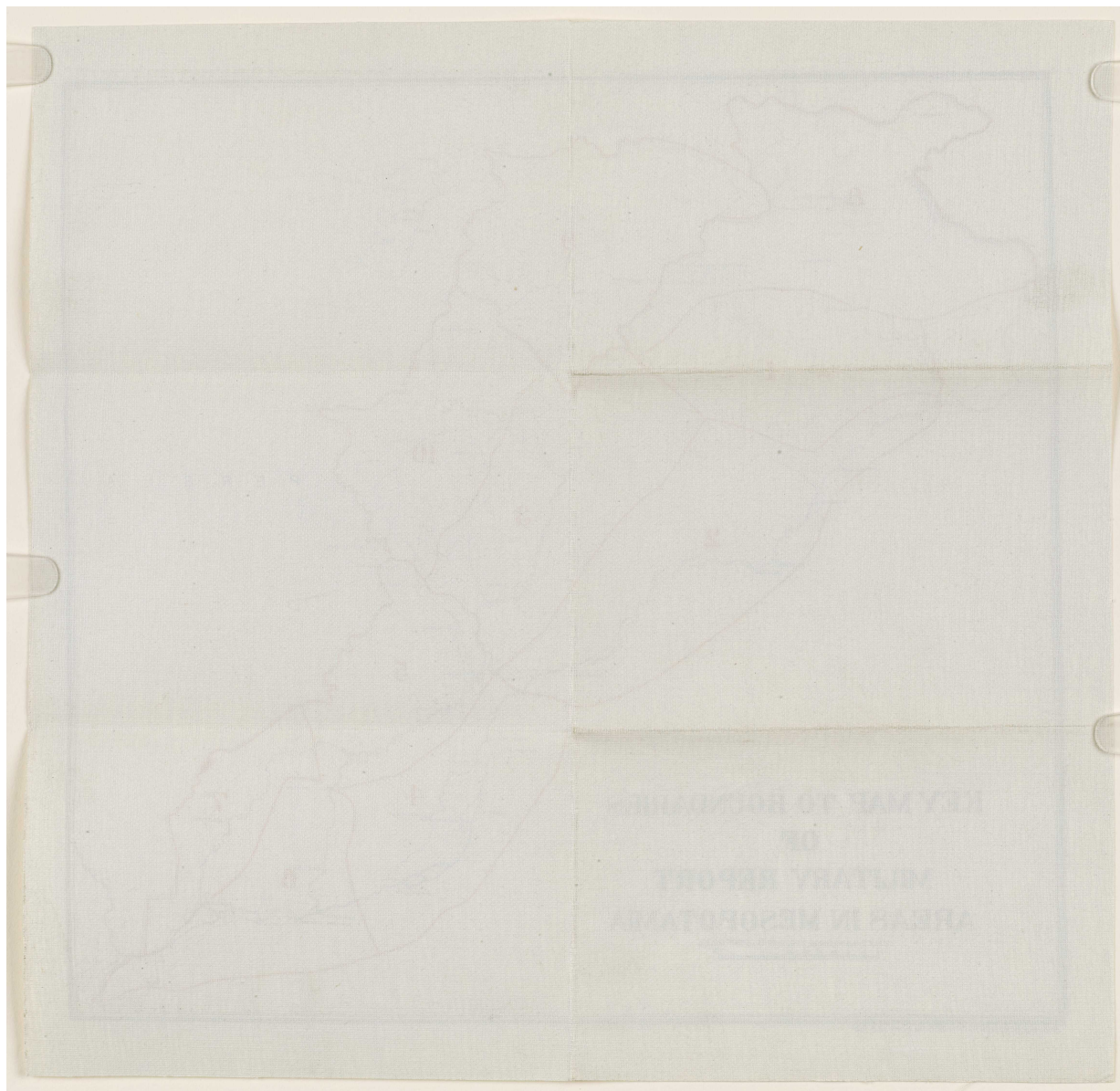
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